

THE READER

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 166, Vol. VII.

Saturday, March 3, 1866.

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THE READER.

3 MARCH, 1866.

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Deposit on Application, £1 per Share, on Allotment, £4 per Share.

It is not anticipated that more than £5 per Share will be required in addition.

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ENGINEER-IN-CHIEF—M. Paul Bordo, Marseilles (Member of the Conseil Général).

SECRETARY (pro tem.)—Alfred Lowe, Esq.

Temporary Offices—17 and 18 Cornhill.

OBJECTS OF THE COMPANY.

The Imperial Land Company of Marseilles (which has been nearly twelve months in course of organization) is established with a view of purchasing and acquiring land and property in the important city of Marseilles, the re-sale of the same, and the acquisition of concessions and privileges connected with the development and improvements of the city and port.

In furtherance of these objects, and after long and careful investigation, various properties have been purchased, in the best portions of the city, and where the progress of the improvements gives assurance of profitable results.

PROPERTIES ACQUIRED.

The properties which the Company have acquired are as follows:—

1. The Joliette property, comprising about 2,244,000 square feet of building land, exclusive of streets.
2. The Rue Imperiale property, consisting of about 98,000 square feet.
3. The Catalans property, consisting of the Hotel, the Imperial Club, baths, houses, and building plots, in all about 2,300,000 square feet.
4. The Prado property, consisting of building plots of about 204,000 square feet.

It will be seen, on reference to the map, that the Company's purchases comprise the lands to the north of the town as well as those to the south, with a large extent of seaboard; making a total of about 4,900,000 square feet.

MARSEILLES, PROGRESS OF.

Marseilles, both in population and wealth the first maritime city in France, contains a dense population of more than 300,000 souls. During the past year 18,000 vessels, with a tonnage of upwards of 3,000,000 tons, entered and left the harbour. Marseilles commands the commerce of the Mediterranean, engrosses nearly the whole trade with Algeria, and is the packet station for the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company, the Messageries Impériales, and other steam-packet companies trading with all parts of the world. It possesses commodious docks and warehouses, and, by railway, is in direct communication with all parts of France.

The old harbour having been found inadequate for the rapidly expanding commerce of the place, the new Harbour of La Joliette, covering an area of 95 acres, was constructed, and is constantly crowded with shipping. It is surrounded by broad quays, with stately buildings on the north side, and a new town is rising rapidly in its immediate vicinity. Since 1860 three other basins have been constructed, named Du Lazaret, d'Arène, and Napoleon, which will double the harbour accommodation of Marseilles.

THE EMPEROR'S INTEREST IN MARSEILLES.

It is well known that his Majesty the Emperor of the French takes deep interest in the welfare and prosperity of Marseilles, and the Directors have strong reasons to believe that his Majesty's gracious and special protection may be depended upon to aid any enterprise having (like the present Company) the object of developing the resources of the city, and accordingly application is intended forthwith to be made by the Directors to obtain the valuable concession for raising the Fort St. Nicholas, and to make the new Catalans Port.

RUE IMPERIALE.

By the construction of the Rue Imperiale, which is 80 feet

wide, and lined by important buildings, a direct communication has been effected between the Rue Canebière, the Exchange, the Ancien Basin or Old Harbour, and the new basins or docks above mentioned. This has caused the demolition of large blocks of houses densely occupied, which circumstance, together with the previous deficiency of house accommodation, renders the construction of new buildings absolutely necessary for commercial and residential purposes, and causes an eager demand for vacant spots of building land.

JOLIETTE PROPERTY ACQUIRED.

In this quarter of the town, where the commercial requirements of the growing population are so great, the Company has secured about 57 acres of freehold building land, exclusive of streets, and this under exceptionally favourable circumstances, both as respects situation and terms of payment.

RUE IMPERIALE.—PROPERTY ACQUIRED.

More than 98,000 square feet of this land are in the Rue Imperiale—the finest street in Marseilles. The remainder is situated in the Quartier de la Joliette, commencing at the Port of La Joliette, and extending the whole length of the docks, the Basin d'Arène, the Port Napoleon, and terminating at the Basin Radoub. These lands are traversed by streets from 40 to 50 feet wide, in connexion with the Rue Imperiale by the Boulevard Maritime, and are surrounded by an industrious and thriving population.

TERM OF PURCHASE.

The land will be handed over to the Company completely levelled, with all the streets and footpaths paved, drainage complete, gas laid on, and provision made for the supply of water to the topmost stories.

As by the conditions of the treaty for the acquisition of the Joliette estate, it is stipulated that six years should be given, by which time the estate is to be covered with houses: the option is reserved to the Company for the same period, during which it may elect either to pay the purchase-money in one sum, or to make an annual payment of equal instalments, extending over a period of thirty years, with a fixed rate of interest and sinking fund.

PROFESSOR DONALDSON'S REPORT.

Before the treaty for this portion of the property was concluded, the purchasers secured the services of Professor Donaldson (late President of the Institute of British Architects) to personally investigate the operations in progress at Marseilles, and the character and value of the sites. A copy of his report accompanies the prospectus.

CATALANS PROPERTY ACQUIRED.

The Catalans properties are in the immediate neighbourhood of the marine residence of the Emperor, and command a frontage to the sea of about a mile in length. They are admirably situated both for business premises and private villas.

BUILDINGS NOW ON CATALANS ESTATE.

Many first-class houses are already erected; a magnificent hotel (now open), having 140 rooms; and the Imperial Club (now in course of construction), of noble architectural elevation, surrounded with terrace and gardens, all laid out under the Government plan. There is an extensive bathing establishment, often frequented by more than 5,000 bathers daily.

This district will undergo a radical improvement when Fort St. Nicholas, which separates the Catalan property from the centre of the town, shall have been demolished, a new port constructed, and additional streets made, so as to render complete the facilities for communication between the old and new portions of the town.

The municipality of the town of Marseilles engage, at their own expense, to lay down gas, make macadamized roads, and ensure a proper water supply for the houses.

There are in this quarter about four miles of streets from 40 to 50 feet in width, which have been recently opened and lighted with gas; and the Boulevard la Corderie (72 feet in width and lately opened for traffic) forms a continuation of the splendid promenade of the Prado.

The district communicates with the Quai de Rive Neuve, the centre of the old port and of the commerce of the town, by the Boulevard de l'Empereur. All these important facts furnish assurances of great success, and there can be no doubt that this portion of the Company's properties will be sold at a price which will yield a very large profit.

THE PRADO PROPERTY.

The Prado lands are near the Southern Railway Station, in an admirable position, and well adapted for the establishment of warehouses, shops, &c.

With respect to the value and prospects of these properties, a report by Mr. P. Bordo, the well-known engineer, of Marseilles, accompanies this prospectus, giving ample details thereon.

AMOUNT AND PERIOD OF PAYMENTS.

The total amount of purchase is £3,325,163; of this sum £2,668,640 is payable by instalments spread over various dates and extending in part to a period of 50 years, and only £656,523 in cash, on taking over the estates, caution money being lodged in the meantime for the due observance of the Company's engagements. It is therefore expected that, with the aid of the Company's borrowing powers, not more than £10 per share will be required on those shares not fully paid up on allotment. Thus, with a comparatively small amount of capital, the shareholders have the advantage of profit derivable from dealing with a very large extent of property.

JOLIETTE PROPERTY RE-SOLD.

As evidence of the value of the purchases, the Directors have the satisfaction to announce that they have already concluded arrangements with an Association of Builders at Marseilles to transfer to them one of the properties (the Joliette property) at a profit of about £600,000, such property and profits to be paid for by annuities and sinking fund over a period of thirty years, with option on their part to pay for the whole at any time during five years, with an obligation on the part of the contractors to deposit a sum of four millions of francs (£160,000) as caution money, at fixed periods (the first instalment of which was paid on the execution of the contract), and also to cover the property with buildings within a period of five years at their own cost.

The Shareholders will have the benefit of this contract, and from October, 1867, will receive the income derivable from this contract—viz., the difference between the annuities to be paid and received by the Company, and this income joined to the existing revenue from the Catalans estate, as well as to the anticipated profit on further sales during that period, will, it is estimated, not only enable the Directors to continue the payment of the interest at 10 per cent. per annum, but enable them to declare periodical bonuses on the capital called up.

As to the Catalan property, having regard to its important position, the command it has of the sea-board, the facilities it presents for construction of the new port, and its general adaptability for the formation of streets, shops, and private villas, a large and remunerative return may also be anticipated.

ESTIMATED PROFIT ON CATALAN PROPERTY.

On reference to Mr. Bordo's Report, it will be seen that when the various improvements which have been suggested have been completed, and the Catalan property fully developed, it is estimated to yield a gross profit of upwards of cent. per cent., and this within a period of three years, although the estimates have been based on the more extended period of five years, and that

when the Fort St. Nicholas is removed, and the new port completed, this profit will be trebled.

MINIMUM INTEREST, TEN PER CENT.

As the first payments of annuities and rent under the arrangements entered into with regard to the Joliette property do not commence until the 1st October, 1867, and become payable only in the subsequent half-year—viz., the 1st April, 1868, the Directors have decided to pay interest at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum for two years, from March, 1866, on the capital called up, and for which four Interest Warrants will be attached to the Share Certificates at the time of issue (which will be charged to land purchases account). After that date the revenue from the Joliette lands, the rentals from the other properties, and profits on further sales, will be applicable for dividend or bonuses.

PAYMENT OF SHARES IN FULL ALLOWED.

As some Shareholders may prefer to pay up the Shares in full, rather than have a larger number subject to calls, application may be made for Shares to be fully paid up on allotment. Four half-yearly Interest Warrants, at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum, will likewise be attached to these Share Certificates. In the allotment of Shares, preference will be given to these applications, but the number so allotted will not exceed 30,000 Shares, and the Directors reserve to themselves the right, in their discretion, only to allot 60,000 Shares in all on the present allotment.

A portion of the Shares will be allotted to Applicants who are Shareholders in

The Credit Foncier and Mobilier of England (Limited),
The Agra and Masterman's Bank (Limited),
The National Bank,
The National Bank of Liverpool (Limited),
To Applicants from Marseilles and Paris,

and the balance to the other portion of the general public.

Applications for Shares may be made in the annexed form, which must be accompanied by the payment of £1 per Share deposit, without which no application will be considered. Should a less number of Shares be allotted than are applied for, the deposit will, so far as required, be applied towards the payment due on allotment. Should no allotment be made, the amount paid will be at once returned without deduction.

Copies of the Architect's and Engineer's Reports on the Lands purchased, and a Map, showing their position, accompany the Prospectus, which, with Forms of Application for Shares, may be had of the Brokers and Solicitors; also of the Agra and Masterman's Bank (Limited), 35 Nicholas Lane; of the National Bank, Old Broad Street, London, and their Branches; the National Bank of Liverpool, Liverpool; and of the Secretary, at the Offices of the Credit Foncier and Mobilier of England (Limited), Nos. 17 and 18 Cornhill.

COPY OF MEMORANDUM OF ASSOCIATION.

1. The name of the Company is "The Imperial Land Company of Marseilles (Limited)."
2. The Registered Office of the Company is to be in England.
3. The objects for which the Company is established are:—
(1) The acquisition by purchase, leasing, or otherwise, of land in and near the City of Marseilles, in the Empire of France, and the improvement, by building or otherwise, of land so purchased or acquired.
(2) The selling, leasing, transferring, or otherwise disposing or mortgaging of the lands, houses, and other buildings and works erected, executed, or otherwise acquired by the Company, in large or small portions or altogether, and either before or after the same shall have been improved by building or otherwise, and on such terms as the Company shall think fit.
(3) The improvement of buildings already erected, either by adding to, enlarging, completing, or altering the same, or by substituting new houses and buildings.
(4) The investing of the capital of the Company in building on, or otherwise improving, or adding to, the marketable value of lands from time to time acquired by the Company, and the making, maintaining, and using all such works as the Company may think necessary or expedient for any of the purposes of the Company.
(5) The borrowing of money, and the issue of transferable or other bonds or mortgage debentures, or any other securities founded or based upon all or any of the real or personal assets or credit of the Company.
(6) The transacting and doing of all such matters and things as shall be conducive or incidental to the above objects, or any of them, including the applying for and obtaining the incorporation of the Company in France.
4. The liability of the members is limited.
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this would hardly be a whit more ridiculous.

What, then, are the Eddas? There are two of them. The *Elder* (or *Poetic*) *Edda* is a volume of very old mythological and heroic lays, not known to have been collected before 1300, though containing passages, and even whole poems, that may possibly be ascribed to skalds of the eighth and ninth centuries. It is also entitled the *Edda of Sæmund the Learned*, a priest who died in 1133; yet it is extremely doubtful whether this title was not invented by the Bishop of Skálholt, who found a fine copy of it in 1643. The *Younger* (or *Prose*) *Edda* is a work on prosody, preceded by stories of Odin and the battles of Thor and the Giants, &c., which are capitally narrated in a half-serious, half-comical vein. It is commonly fathered upon Snorri (Latinized into Snorro) Sturluson, a man of mark both in politics and letters, who was murdered in 1241. Of him and his family, the Sturlungs, we shall say more presently. The word *Edda* means *Great-grandmother*; but why and when this name was given to a learned work remains a mystery. The *Younger Edda* has been translated by Bishop Percy and by Mr. G. W. Dasent.

As for the Lays, one of them is well known by Gray's version, "The Descent of Odin." A few have since been balladized by the late Hon. W. Herbert, Dean of Manchester, by far the best of which is "Thor's Recovery of his War-hammer." This vigorous little epic strain has been more closely (and not unworthily) rendered by Mr. Dasent, in the third volume of *Once a Week*. Some other good prose translations may be found in Pigott's "Manual of Scandinavian Mythology." The rhymes of Cottle, of Bristol, (published in 1797), can hardly be recommended, considering, as Mr. Herbert observes, that the Lays then only existed in Icelandic, of which Mr. Cottle knew nothing, and in Latin, of which Mr. Cottle knew very little. Still, the present translator might have profited by a little more search into the attempts of his predecessors; he professes to have heard only of Gray and Cottle. While we are noticing his sins of omission, we may ask why he did not include the *Quern-song*, sung by two giant maidens, who ground peace and plenty for a king, as long as he kept awake, but war and death as soon as he fell asleep. The original, with a fine translation by R. Jamieson, was published in Weber's "Northern

Antiquities" in 1814.* Our translator may answer that it is neither a part of Sæmund's Edda, nor strictly mythological; but the same objections apply to others which he has admitted—for instance, to the "Lay of Ríg," a myth on the origin of classes, with good pictures of the thrall, the yeoman, and the prince, but only to be found in MSS. of the *Prose Edda*; and also to the "Lay of the Sun," a weird vision of death and the flight of the soul, but essentially Christian. Another complaint we have to make. When the dwarf Alvis (*Allwise*) recites the synonyms of earth, heaven, moon, and sun, &c., they are printed in Icelandic without any explanatory foot-notes. The present volume, however, is very welcome. It is really the first attempt to offer a fitting translation of the mythological Lays in a body. It is never poetical, and sometimes it is bald; but, on the whole, it is close and readable. We know, by sad experience, the difficulty of turning the Lays into rhythm. But it is time to treat of the Sagas.

Now, what is a Saga? The word simply means a *Story*. It is formed from the verb *to say*, just as our *tale* is from the verb *to tell*; and it is used of every kind of *written* narrative, from the highest and driest history to the wildest and vilest romance. Many of our writers have adopted it into English as an equivalent of the German *Sage* (myth, or oral tradition), and talk about the *Saga of the St. Graal*, or the *Saga of Hengist and Horsa*; but it is quite absurd, and really injurious to literature, to introduce a technical word in a wrong sense. It can only be properly applied to Icelandic stories, and not even to these, until they are reduced into regular form. The thing itself did not exist before the twelfth century. When the turbulent chiefs of Norway and the Scottish islands first sought a refuge from Harald Harfager, in 874, and found it in the desert island which they aptly named Iceland, they brought with them Lays and Legends of their gods and heroes, a few of which survive in the Eddas; but they were still more bent upon handing down their own genealogies and family traditions, especially such as related to their feuds with the monarchs of Norway; but none of these are Sagas. In the course of half a century they had colonized the whole island, and new interests had arisen, and new songs and new tales of adventure were passing from mouth to mouth; but years had yet to pass before the birth of the Saga. At last, in the year 1000, Christianity was introduced. The rudiments of writing must have accompanied it; but we hear of no literary composition before 1130. About that year the first two Sagas were written by Ari Frodi (Ari the Learned). They treated of very little more than the colonization of the country and the genealogies of the colonists. But now that one writer had shown the way, many more rushed forward, eager to record the deeds and sayings which they had heard from their forefathers. They wrote as they spoke, and thus founded a style for themselves, uninfluenced by the Latin authors. In fact, the Eddas and Sagas, together with the old code of laws called *Grágás*, make up the only literature which is of pure Germanic growth. Whilst the rest of Europe was content with monkish Latin, there was a real reading public in Iceland. Every district had its heroes of the tenth century, and the heroic biographies were very numerous before 1200. One of the earliest of these smaller Sagas was that of Viga-Glumr (Killing Glum), which has just been translated by Sir Edmund Head. As they became more widely circulated, many of these were collected by skilful authors into works of family history; such were the *Eyrbyggja* (an abstract of which is reprinted in Bohn's edition of Mallet's "Northern Antiquities"), the *Njála* (Mr. Dasent's *Burnt Njal*), and so on. In like manner, the deeds of Ice-

* We have remarked, since writing the above that in Lünig's edition of the *Elder Edda*, which has been the text-book of our translator, the *Quern-song* is printed at the end of the "Heroic Lays;" an odd arrangement, we think.

landic adventurers at foreign Courts were incorporated into great works—the *Knyttlinga* (Saga of King Canute and his family) for instance, and the chronicles of the kings of Norway. The last-mentioned chronicles are best known in their abridged form, the *Heimskringla** of Snorri Sturluson, the reputed author of the *Prose Edda*; but there are some fuller versions still existing, containing episodes of great interest as pictures of life and manners. There were many Sagas, such as those of the bishops, written in the first half of the fourteenth century, but the classical age was then drawing to its close. Its fullest bloom was reached before 1300; and Snorri Sturluson had two nephews, whose names may be said to mark this period—the one was Olaf Thordarson, who became a famous skald at the Courts of Denmark and Norway, and died in 1259; the other was his still more famous brother, Sturla Thordarson, who wrote the Saga of the Norwegian King, Hákon Hákonarson, and many others—above all, that of his own family, the Sturlungs, the most important of Icelandic national histories. He died in 1284.

In our poor sketch of this rich mediæval literature, we have omitted any mention of the mythical and romantic Sagas that abounded in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. One of each kind may be specified, not as the best, but as connected with well-known works. These are: 1. The *Volsunga Saga*, drawn from the heroic Lays of the *Elder Edda*, and containing the myths of the Niflungs and their fatal treasure, in a much purer form than what our German friends can find in their *Nibelungen-lied*. 2. *Frithiof's Saga*, the source of Bishop Tegnér's charming poem. The latter has been Englished, oddly but ably, by Mr. G. Stephens, in the introduction to his very odd version of the poem. The Norwegian Court set the fashion of borrowing from the French and German. Thus the South German myths about Dietrich of Bern are nowhere so fully preserved as in the *Vilkinsa Saga*, and the long-lost French Lay of Sir Tristram still exists in a close translation made for King Hákon Hákonarson in 1226, a date earlier than that of Thomas of Ercildoun. A transcript of this, we believe, is in the hands of Professor Unger, of Christiania, waiting for publication. The *Tristram's Saga* is probably the work of a Norseman, but all the skalds and sagamen of any note were Icelanders. In the course of the fourteenth century, however, especially after the union of Calmar in 1388, they began to feel themselves foreigners in the three Scandinavian kingdoms. Their language, originally called *Danish Tongue* or *Northern Tongue*, was now simply *Icelandic*. Their country was an ill-governed colony, without political life, and soon without a living literature. During the fifteenth century nothing was produced except ballads and sermons. Matters mended in the sixteenth century, and the poor, remote, and scantily-peopled island (numbering little more than 60,000 inhabitants) has now a considerable modern literature, especially rich in poetry and historical criticism. The language has shown wonderful toughness, and the twelfth century is no more antiquated to an Icelanders than the sixteenth is to us. The old Sagas are still the delight of every humble fireside. Many know one or another by heart; and in Mr. Metcalfe's "Oxonian in Iceland" we read of a man who can repeat nearly all the classical Sagas relating to his native country.

We must now go back to the tenth century. The pastures (there were no corn-lands) were now parcelled out, and the chiefs were established in something like settled authority, though with frequent ups and downs; but the hot blood which had driven them out of Norway long seethed in the veins of their children. It was common for the youths as fast as they fell in love, or into any other scrape, to be sent abroad for three years, to show their mettle. They too frequently left their softer qualities at home, and became ad-

* The *Heimskringla* was translated by Samuel Laing, in 3 vols. 8vo, in 1844.

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venturers in every sense, just like their cousins in Normandy. Good seamen, good horsemen, good singers, good swordsmen, swaggerers at board, yet wild-cats to the death, they often pushed through desperate straits, and returned home laden with choice weapons, scarlet mantles, and armlets of gold. Among all these dare-devils the grandest figure, perhaps, is that of Egill Skallagrímsson, who gained rare booty in the service of our own King Athelstan, and sang poems of wonderful power. His saga is one of the largest and noblest extant. His granddaughter, Helga the Fair, was betrothed to another hero of the same stamp, Gunnlang Snake-tongue. In Gunnlang's Saga, an amusing sketch is drawn of him, puffing up the royal hall of Norway, seemingly unaware of the blood from an ulcer that oozed through his boot. He is asked how he can walk without halting, and replies, "I shall never halt while my legs are even." His gallant bearing and ready wit won him gifts of honour, but he could not keep his snake-tongue quiet—it stung a friend into a rival, and he lost Helga. He forced her husband to meet him, and they killed one another. His story has been amplified and weakened by De la Motte Fouqué.

Gunnlang was a swashbuckler; yet the reader of his Saga will always sympathize with him: he was grossly wronged in the wooing, and foully slain by his enemy whilst giving him drink. This fatal generosity was a sort of weakness not likely to shorten the life of the selfish old fox, Viga-Glum, whose Saga (now before us) displays quite a different type of heathendom. Sir Edmund Head's translation is straightforward, but it does not convey the least idea of the un-Latinlike forms of the original,—in this respect contrasting most disadvantageously with Mr. Dasent's "Gisli the Outlaw," also just published. At every page we meet with such modern terms as "moved his establishment," "undemonstrative," "your position may be a difficult one," "a distinguished-looking man" (pp. 18, 19, 20, 21), and so forth;—in short, its style is that of an ordinary essay. Its want of epic movement is, perhaps, felt all the more, because there is no romantic interest in the story. The chief merits of the Saga are the forcible style, the pictures of life at the farm, the law-court, and the temple, and the character of Glum himself. His father had been a great chief, but died young; and his mother was despoiled of half her lands by their unneighbourly kinsfolk, Thorkel and his son Sigmund. Glum grew up silent, morose, and lazy, and was looked upon as a booby. At fifteen he visited his mother's father in Norway, and gained great honour by killing a Berserk, or Northern bravo. When he came back to his mother, he found her more harassed than ever. She stirred him up one day, saying that the neighbours' cattle had broken the fences. He drove them out, and right up to the gates of Thorkel and Sigmund. They abused him, and Sigmund added that he might give himself fine airs in foreign parts, but that at home he was known to be a booby. He turned back, and a great laughter seized him—so long, that his face grew sal-low, and the tears rolled down like hail-stones; this often happened to him again, when the killing fit came upon him. Soon afterwards he rode into one of the fields of which he had been despoiled, called "Sure-giver," and slew Sigmund in the face of his wife. When a friend warned him of what would follow, he only answered, "First nights of blood are hottest; his friends will learn to bear it in course of time." We have no space to relate how he triumphed at the law-court, how he regained his lands, how numerous were his feuds, and how they always left him stronger and more feared; or how his second son inherited the dreadful laughter of his sire. At last came the turning-point of his fortune. He met a body of his foes in the field called "Bushacre," and dispersed them, remarking that "Bushacre" had been hard to mow. But by this day's work, as his elder son rejoined, he had mown his best fields out of his

hands. He was sued on behalf of one man, whom he himself had killed. He skilfully shifted the deed upon another, and got free, but betrayed himself by a satirical song; he was sued again, and escaped by false oaths, ingeniously twisted, in order to satisfy his gods; again he was sued, and he lost his chieftainship. He died poor, and old, and blind. His Saga is of the twelfth century, and one of the earliest.

We fear that we must have left a bad impression on the reader. The portrait of Glum is repulsive; it is only relieved by the details of his adroitness, and by his caustic sayings. Still, this Saga possesses many of the attractions of its class; its incidents (divided by Professor Möbius into eight groups) are lively; and "the actors in it are real men and women—not mere lay figures," as Sir Edmund Head observes, in his excellent little preface. It is also more than usually valuable to the legal antiquary. But for the present we must bid farewell to the Eddas and Sagas.

PALESTINE.

Home in the Holy Land: A Tale, Illustrating Customs and Incidents in Modern Jerusalem. By Mrs. Finn. (Nisbet & Co.)

A Hundred Days in the East: A Diary of a Journey to Egypt, Palestine, Turkey in Europe, Greece, the Isles of the Archipelago, and Italy. By Archibald Pollok Black, M.A. (J. Shaw.)

EGYPT, as the high-road to India, has, we all know, been invaded by modern civilization, so that the narrow, winding bazaars of Alexandria have almost all disappeared before wide, straight streets of a decidedly French aspect; and the picturesque shutters, and counters covered with cushions, of the Arab shops, where the shopkeeper and his customers were wont to smoke a friendly pipe together, have given place to plate-glass windows; whilst the locomotive whirls the traveller across the desert, and over the mystic Nile by a bridge of timber like those over the fens of Cambridgeshire; and Cairo has become a strange medley of Oriental bazaars and European streets, where French restaurants have sprung up by the side of queer little *cafés*, which remind us of Damascus or Smyrna, the Mahomedan quarter of which has retained its Eastern character far more decidedly than any of the other great Oriental seaports. Once, however, in the interior of Syria or Asia Minor, and time seems almost to have stopped. Buildings look fresh and new, although many generations have passed since their erection; the great gilded dome of the mosque of Omar—which, if it were really built by that caliph, is older than the time of our Saxon line of kings—looks as if it had scarcely stood 200 years; whilst even the wells of Beersheba, which were undoubtedly constructed by that father of Arab sheikhs, Abraham, only betray their great antiquity by the deep grooves worn in the edges of the hard limestone by the ropes of the water-drawers. The Rev. Mr. Tristram counted these flutings in 1864 round the mouth of the great well, which the Arabs affirm was built by "Ibrahim el Kulil" (Abraham the Friend), and found no less than 143, the shallowest of which are four inches deep, although that distinguished traveller asserts the stones to be harder than marble; and the happiest feature in Mrs. Finn's book seems to us to be the thorough appreciation of the immense lapse of time which has passed without producing adequate results, for she has not given one jot too much importance to the vast antiquity of the Arabian customs, and the student of anthropology cannot but be struck with the precise similarity of the Bedouin customs and manners of to-day and those recorded of the Patriarchs in Genesis.

Sometimes Mrs. Finn warms into quite a poetic style, and has succeeded in sketching her scenes very happily, although they are but sketches, of which the following is a fair example:—

The town of Ramlah now lay before us, amid

vast olive groves in park-like scenery. The principal object is a tall tower of white stone; but the charm to me was in the multitude of palm trees, whose feathery heads stood out clearly against the pale blue evening sky. We were reminded that it was autumn by the sudden coolness of the evening, and the long, slanting beams of the sun having lost their power.

We are at a loss, however, to understand why the book is called a tale, since it appears to be rather a personal narrative, which unfortunately enters far too much into family affairs to interest the general reader; but, with all its faults, Mrs. Finn's book is quite refreshing, after the dozens of volumes which are continually pouring from the press from the pens of writers who have spent from five-and-twenty to a hundred days in the East, and then consider themselves competent to compile some five or six hundred pages upon their holiday trip, and think themselves travellers.

The Rev. Mr. Black has added another to the list of such books. The following paragraph from the bulky volume before us is certainly most amusing:—

An old writer mentions as a curious circumstance that the fish caught in this lake (Tiberias) are the same species as those found in the Nile, such as charmouth, silurus, baenni, mulsil, sparus galileus, and particularly a fish named coracinus. If this were really so, then it explains a phenomenon mentioned by Josephus, to the effect that there existed a communication between the Nile and this lake. With all due deference to the historian, although ignorant of ichthyology as a science—not knowing much more than the difference between a skate and a flounder, or a haddock and a herring—I must say it would be difficult to identify the tenants of the Nile with those in the creel before me.

The traveller whom Mr. Black has thus lightly criticized was no other than Hasselquist, who was perfectly right in what he stated, since modern research has shown that a very large proportion of the fish of the Sea of Galilee are identical with Nilotic species, and Dr. Günther has specimens of them all pickled in the cellars of the British Museum, where our author may convince himself of their identity, if he will only take the trouble to compare them, although he may need a lamp, unless he waits until something is done for their better accommodation. We are sorry we cannot give the rev. gentleman the credit of having studied Hasselquist, since the observation which he has copied occurs in Clark's travels, where it is coupled with the fish named coracinus exactly as it is in the book before us; and for this fish we must go to Josephus himself, who says: "Some have thought it (the Lake of Tiberias) to be a vein of the Nile, because it produces the coracinus fish as well as that lake does which is near Alexandria" (*De Bell. Jud.*, lib. iii., cap. x.);—so when he says, "Though we admire Josephus as a patriotic historian, we need not repose absolute faith in his speculations regarding physics or natural history," we cannot help seeing that Mr. Black has spoken most unadvisedly, since Josephus did not give the speculation as his own, and that historian happened to know more about fish than his critic.

LADY ARABELLA STUART.

The Life and Letters of Arabella Stuart, including Numerous Original and Unpublished Documents. By Elizabeth Cooper. 2 Vols. (Hurst & Blackett.)

WE have here certainly numerous documents, and very original ones among them, and we have the letters of Arabella Stuart; but her life we have not. It is a question, if Arabella lived a life in the biographical sense of the word, though her attempts at extracting a maintenance from various monopolies are extremely curious, and the episode of her escape and recapture is stirring. But all the earlier part of her history is monotonous to a degree, and we cannot recommend the first three-quarters of Miss Cooper's volumes to any save those who are desirous of studying the life of English

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ladies under the Tudors and the Stuarts. Such students will remark with interest that nursery diet under Queen Elizabeth included weak ale, and that for breakfast a young lady had half a loaf of household bread, a manchet or loaf of the finest flour, a quart of ale, and a chicken or broiled mutton bones. Many similar details are given us by Miss Cooper, sometimes in the quaint and stiff phraseology of the old documents, sometimes in her own more fluent language. But the fact of her coupling such information with the history of one person shows that she looks on this sort of antiquarianism as a thing of secondary importance, as an illustration of her story, not as her subject matter, and, therefore, we have a right to complain when the illustrations are better than the text, and the work reminds us of that portrait by a flower-painter, in which the head of the sitter was scarcely seen for the mass of flowers that surrounded it.

Miss Cooper seems aware of this defect, as she alludes in one place to the incomplete nature of her sources of information. "That mysterious manner (of allusion) so tantalizing to a biographer," is a phrase the truth of which must be felt by many biographers. It is very tantalizing when the man whose life you are writing chooses to do nothing just at the point where something may be fairly expected of him. It is still more tantalizing when he does something and leaves no authentic record of it, when all his friends and contemporaries know what was done, and allude to it in a familiar way, but without telling you anything about it. One of the most signal instances of the misery of biographers is furnished by Campbell's "Life of Mrs. Siddons." The poet of the "Pleasures of Hope" complained bitterly of having to make bricks without straw, and the simile has peculiar aptitude. For after emulating the Israelites in their work, the biographer is exposed to the same punishment; he is beaten by the critics, while the fault is in his own subject.

We cannot quote against Miss Cooper, "ye are idle, ye are idle," for her industry is great, and the materials she has collected must have cost her much labour. She might, indeed, have consulted accuracy a little more by avoiding the strange assertions that Henry III. of France was murdered by a Jesuit, and that Henry IV. met with a similar fate. As a matter of fact, Henry III. was murdered by a Dominican, and Ravallac, who assassinated Henry IV., had been a member of the Feuillants, a Cistercian brotherhood. But, perhaps, Miss Cooper gives the name Jesuit that large interpretation which prevails in England, and which, we remember, led a traveller to speak of a very severe order of Jesuits called Benedictines. We see no reason to question her accuracy on matters coming more within her own province, though, as she goes deeply into questions of genealogy and of antiquarian detail, her path is surrounded with dangers. She has done wisely for her own safety in printing her documents at length, instead of drawing a moral from them, or weaving them into her narrative. Yet, if she had taken the latter course, she might have made one interesting volume. She ought to have dwelt more exclusively on the chief episode in Arabella Stuart's life, and we could have spared much about the successive marriages of Bess of Hardwick. The only part of Arabella Stuart's life which concerns us at all is her relationship to the reigning family. Like Elizabeth, James I. was very careful on the subject of the succession. Arabella chose to fall in love, and it might be inconvenient to the Stuarts to have children born in a younger branch, especially when that younger branch allied itself with the descendants of the younger sister of Henry VIII., whom Henry VIII.'s will gave precedence over her elder sister, the ancestress of the Stuarts. Accordingly when Arabella Stuart married William Seymour, James I. took the precaution of incarcerating the lovers, as Elizabeth had done with William Seymour's grandmother. William and Arabella escaped,

but Arabella was recaptured, and James allowed her to die in the Tower.

There is truth in Miss Cooper's remark, that Arabella Stuart's imprisonment is a significant passage in the political history of England. It shows that under the Stuarts the rights of the subject were totally neglected. The theory of the early Stuart reigns was just the same as the one we see in active operation in Prussia. The King was supreme, and he could do no wrong. The courts of law were the King's courts, not the people's. We see in the Prussia of to-day the Supreme Court going in the face of the Constitution to please the King. In like manner, when Arabella Stuart was imprisoned without a show of trial, she memorialized the Chief Justice of England and the Chief Justice of the Common Pleas to grant her a trial by writ of Habeas Corpus, and her appeal was utterly disregarded. It needed the civil wars, and the Commonwealth, and the Revolution of 1688, to overthrow those theories of Divine right in England, and to teach the world at large that government was for the benefit of the community, not for that of one man. But so long as a king could imprison his relatives in order to guard the succession against future inconveniences, so long as justice was the king's justice, and yielded to his private caprices, there was as little real liberty in England as there is now in Prussia.

In another sense, Arabella Stuart was less a victim than a supporter of the Stuart government. She fattened on the intolerable system of monopolies which contributed so much to the disgust of the people with the reign of that family; and if she had not offended James by her marriage, she would have borne a very different name in history. We hear of her as blazing in jewellery, her jewels and robes at the Masque of Beauty, in 1608, being worth more than 100,000*l.*; and she is constantly in debt. Her expedients for getting money occupy several letters of her own, and several pages of Miss Cooper's volumes. One time she has the privilege of naming all persons who may sell wines and spirits in Ireland. Another time she applies for a license to keep all people from selling oats for more than sixpence a bushel over and above the market price. But all these projects for paying her own debts and keeping her head above water were put an end to by her marriage with William Seymour, her fall from royal favour, and the tragedy of her closing years. Her popularity with modern readers will date from the decline in her fortunes, for not only has Miss Cooper something to tell when her heroine is persecuted, but no one can feel any sympathy with a person who subsisted on one of James's plans for squeezing his people. We should turn away with loathing from James's favourite. We have very nearly indiscriminating sympathy with his victim.

SYSTEMATIC HISTORY.

Atlas Universel d'Histoire et de Geographie. Par M. N. Bouillet. (Paris: Libraire de l'Hachette et Cie.)

Smith's History of Greece;—*Smith's Smaller History of Greece*;—*Schmitt's History of Rome*;—*Smith's Smaller History of Rome*;—*Smith's Smaller History of England*;—*Smith's Ancient Geography.* (Murray.)

Gleig's School Series: A History of Greece. By R. W. Browne, M.A.;—A History of Rome. By R. W. Browne, M.A.;—History of British India. (Longmans & Co.)

White's Eighteen Christian Centuries;—*White's Landmarks of the History of England*;—*White's Landmarks of the History of Greece.* (Routledge & Sons.)

The Student's Text-book of English and General History. By D. Beale;—*First Classical Maps.* With Chronological Tables of Grecian and Roman History, Tables of Jewish Chronology, &c. By Rev. J. Tate. (Bell & Daldy.)

Weale's Series: History of England. By W. D. Hamilton;—History of Greece. By W. D. Hamilton and E. Levien;—History of Rome. By E. Levien. (Virtue Brothers & Co.)

Pillans' Classical Geography. (Blackwood, London & Edinburgh.)

Historical Questions, with Answers. Embracing Ancient and Modern History;—*Questions on British History and on the British Constitution*;—*School Atlases.* (W. and R. Chambers.)

IT is not too much to say that history and geography, whether ancient or modern, have only been recently recognized as school studies, to be pursued upon definite principles, as essential, rather than as subordinate, to the literature of Greece, Rome, or periods which are less remote. The school-boy of past generations, not less than of the present day, was indeed expected to know, if he was asked, the date of the first Olympiad, of the expulsion of the Roman kings, of the accession of William the Conqueror; the situation of Clusium, and the whereabouts of the Isthmus of Panama. But the sources from which this knowledge was to be derived were sterility itself, when compared with those now open to him. His Lempriere, and a few somewhat meagre repertoires of antiquities and geography, were the oracles which he principally consulted. Compendious volumes giving an account of almost every event that has happened from the Deluge down to the passing of the Reform Bill, historical outlines not less comprehensive than accurate, maps drawn with the utmost precision, and in conformity with the latest researches—of these he had none. The historical and geographical knowledge which a school-boy picked up was mainly confined to what he could gather from the notes appended to the classical authors which he read, from these authors themselves, from such books of reference as we have already mentioned, and from the hints of explanation that fell from his tutor's lips. Of course, there were elaborate works of history, which would, if searched well, supply him with all needful information to each minutest detail; but the very sight of these voluminous tomes was suggestive of perplexity. It was no light labour to have to wade through twenty or thirty pages to gain an amount of knowledge which might, for all practical school purposes, have been equally well conveyed in as many lines. Again, while it is true that nothing can be better than to become acquainted with the annals of the Roman Republic, or of the Peloponnesian War, by a perusal of those authors in whose pages they originally appear, the linguistic difficulties to be met with in Livy and Thucydides are such, that the youthful student finds he has enough to do in making himself master of the mere text, to say nothing of the contents; and thus, in reading a speech of Pericles, the school-boy is sufficiently occupied in unravelling the intricacies of some involved construction, and fathoming the force of each carefully-balanced antithesis, without attempting to appreciate the master-strokes of policy which the subtle sentences convey. To completely understand the subject-matter of these authors, it is necessary that two distinct processes should be undergone; and in the earlier stages of learning it will be generally found that the first is effort enough. A boy ought never to be allowed to commence reading Roman or Greek historians, without some previous knowledge of the period upon which he is about to enter. In this way, what would be otherwise uninteresting and comparatively unintelligible, will become instinct with reason and life. Whatever may be the language which the young scholar is required to study, there should exist in his mind, before he proceeds to its literature, some notion of the national history and character. Thus, and thus only, will he perceive that there is a special force and significance in every sentiment and every fact with which he meets; he will be able to fill up, gradually and properly, a preconceived outline, to illustrate events by events, to acquire knowledge on principles and not by rote. For these reasons, it is advisable that the historical manuals first placed in a boy's hands should be as brief as possible. No space should be devoted to unimportant occurrences; his mind should

not be allowed to dwell on what it need not dwell. The veriest framework of knowledge is alone to be desired. Having thus thoroughly mastered the elements, he may turn to more detailed accounts. First one portion and then another of his outline may be filled in from chapters of larger works. His mind will be provided, so to speak, with a series of pegs, upon which those details may be hung. A good foundation has been laid, and there is no danger of the structure falling. To refer a boy who has had no preparatory historical training to portions of Grote, Arnold or Hume, is as rational as to scatter a few grains of seed in an untilled soil, and to expect from them a copious harvest.

A conscientious study of history involves a knowledge of geography. To read and talk of the battle of Marathon, of Zama, or Quatre Bras, and yet to be ignorant of the position of these places on the map, is as idle as to repeat lines in the *Elegiac* or *Alcaic* metres, and to be without a knowledge of their scansion and prosodial laws. Just as the literature of a country can only be thoroughly appreciated when its history is known, so, too, can history only then be said to be rightly studied, when the scenes of each memorable event can be unhesitatingly pointed out. Homer was not only a poet, he was an accurate geographer. His topographical descriptions are quoted by Strabo, less for their poetical beauty, than their strict correctness; and the reader of Homer, whether school-boy or undergraduate, must, if he would enter fully into the spirit of his author, have something more than a shadowy idea of the extent of the plain of Troy and the course of the Scamander. A good atlas—and now there are many such—should never be out of the hands of the youthful historian. His labours will not only thus be rendered more profitable but infinitely easier. How is he to remember the course of Hannibal's march, or the places passed by Alexander in his campaigns, unless from repeated study of his map he has a stereotyped mental picture of the European and Asiatic continents?

Such a work as M. Bouillet has produced is, so far as we know, without an equal or even a rival. The labour expended upon it, and the close accuracy of that labour, are in truth surprising. If we call the volume before us exhaustive of every subject connected with ancient, mediæval, or modern history, we shall hardly have said too much. We have, at the commencement, a series of tables, in which the names of the various archons at Athens and consuls at Rome, are all given in the order in which they held office. The different methods of reckoning time in the modern and the ancient world are set before the reader; and an elaborate scheme of chronology, in which Olympiads, the foundation of Rome, and the date of the Christian era, are severally the regulating principles, enables him at once to see at what period, according to the Athenian calendar, the Licinian Rogations were passed. Laborious disquisitions upon all those separate chronological systems are entered upon, no less lucid than conscientious. Next to these we meet with the various chief events of history annalistically arranged in three parts: *Temps Anciens*, *Moyen Age*, and *Temps Modernes*. Of the manner in which these compilations are executed, it would be difficult to speak too highly. How so much can be compressed into so small a space, how the author has contrived to seize so felicitously, in almost every instance, on those events which are really the characteristic ones of each year, may well excite wonder. M. Bouillet brings down the history of the present day to as late a date as the proclamation of the Amnesty Act in America. But it must not be supposed that this is by any means all which the "Atlas Universel" contains. A succession of genealogical tables next meets us. The descent of the Patriarchs from Adam is traced out; we are shown the history of the principal families of Judah and Israel, of all the monarchs of the

ancient world, of the various Roman Gentes, whose names occupy a prominent place in history, of the Roman and Byzantine emperors, and of every house in mediæval or modern annals of regal or illustrious repute. When we say that nearly 450 pages are occupied with nothing but genealogical tables, some little idea may be formed of the completeness with which this portion of the work has been executed. Next, in forty closely-printed columns, follows a treatise upon heraldry; and the remaining 200 odd pages of letterpress are devoted to ancient and modern geography, notice being taken of all the most recent discoveries and the newest political divisions. And even now we have not exhausted the table of contents. Twelve sheets, in which plates are given representing the heraldic bearings of different countries and their different imperial heads, are but a preface to seventy-two beautifully-executed maps of the modern and ancient world. Than these nothing could be better; and viewing M. Bouillet's work as a whole, we regard it as a monument of successful labour.

The brief histories by Mr. Browne, published by Messrs. Longmans, will engrave, if properly used, upon the pupil's mind, that outline which we have already mentioned as so indispensable a preliminary; they are not too short to be intelligible and interesting, and there is a life and freshness in their narrative. If after having studied these, a boy is made to read the histories of Dr. Smith's series, published by Mr. Murray, a course will be taken, upon which no improvement could be suggested. We must especially notice the admirable character of Dr. Smith's *Smaller History of England*; we do not hesitate to say that this little volume is so pregnant with valuable information, that it will enable anyone who reads it attentively to answer such questions as are set in the English History Paper in the Indian Civil Service Examination. The style in which Mr. White's books are written is full of vigour and interest, and is well calculated to impress thoroughly the reader's mind with a memory of their contents. Nothing can be better than the animated sketches of social life in England and Greece, which are given in the "Landmarks." Mr. White's "Christian Centuries" is exceedingly useful as a handbook of general history, for a full knowledge of which schoolmasters would do well in proposing a special extra prize. We are much pleased with Mr. Beale's text-book; its arrangement is good and without trace of confusion. The classical maps and chronological tables executed by Mr. Tate appear sufficiently correct; the productions of both these authors might be used privately by the learner, independently of the regular school-books. The various histories of Weale's Series are all characterized by the same high qualities. They have been industriously and successfully compiled. If such a thing as a royal road to learning ever existed, or could exist, it might reasonably be supposed to be seen in the "Historical Questions and Answers" of the Messrs. Chambers and Co. The range of subjects over which the pupil is taken in a few short pages is more than considerable. There is but one danger; knowledge so easily acquired is easily forgotten. "Lightly come, lightly go," is a saying which is not true of money alone. But this does not detract from the excellence with which these manuals have been compiled. The "Questions on British History and Constitution" are chosen with extreme judgment and care.

Geography cannot be learned in any other better way than by constant reference to some good atlas. As names of localities occur in reading history, they should be immediately searched out in the map. Consequently, manuals are less needed for this study almost than for any other. We have already spoken of the high merits of M. Bouillet's ancient and modern geographies and maps. The treatises of Dr. Smith and Professor Pillans, and the atlases published by Messrs. Chambers and Co., must be equally commended. On a former occasion

we have characterized the various classical manuals as remarkable for the amount of conscientious labour which they display. The same remark holds good with reference to the historical and geographical school treatises that we have had occasion to notice. School authors have endeavoured to make the subjects of which they treat attractive as well as their information sound. Such a plan cannot fail to be successful. A boy's attention can only be retained when his interest has been aroused.

NEW NOVELS.

Land at Last: A Novel in Three Books. By Edmund Yates, Author of "Broken to Har-ness," &c. (Chapman & Hall.)

EDUCATED persons find more difficulty in speaking naturally and in writing with simplicity than is generally supposed. Certain ideas present themselves to well-trained minds spontaneously, clothed in words calculated to convey their meaning to themselves; but this correct phrasing unfortunately sends the reader to his dictionary, or causes him to knit his brows in perplexity, till he, too, hits the right scent. To write acceptably for the public is to use thoughts and a tongue "understanded" of the people.

This, which we hold to be a thorough English view of the subject, was impressed into the English about the time of the Reformation. At that period the object was to create a self-thinking people, without which no nation can ever acquire stability. On this self-reliance rests the practical straightforward character of both branches of the English family on this and the other side of the Atlantic. Both are alike descendants of the clear-headed thinkers of the sixteenth century, and equally capable of reducing "deep" thoughts or "tall" words to their lowest denomination. Nothing if not experimental, they bring the magic lantern of counsel darkened with verbiage into broad daylight, and laugh at the monstrous figures dwarfed to their real stature. "In plain English," say we, "you mean so-and-so;" and thus many a would-be philosopher is shoaled on his own shallows.

Have you ever listened, in some awe at first, to two learned conversationalists? If so, have you not been amused when you quickly discovered how much their wisdom owed to mere inflation of language! We have often longed to expose these pretenders to transcendentalism, and, like Aristophanes, to tack the "pipkin to their colloquy." Scientific works we do not include in this censure. There, long stilted expressions are necessary for exact definition. Good novels, which profess to be transcripts from the life itself, require two peculiar gifts in their authors—first, the discernment which enables the writers to depict scenes and characters; secondly, the Defoe-like ability by which they so deliver their thoughts as to affect the reader with the feeling that it is the truth which addresses him, though disguised for a time with the cap and bells of the jester.

"Land at Last" possesses in a great degree both these qualities, and we congratulate Mr. Yates on his success. His description of the life of artists is very interesting, and one feels again amongst friends. We cannot help mentioning another point of excellence in his favour—viz., his method of representing the conversation of good society, where persons usually suggest, or more than fully explain, their meaning, with the true sense of modesty that they are reminding rather than teaching their equals. The story itself is very effective as well as impartial in its view of human nature, for in it we see portrayed a vicious woman and a bad man, but both redeemed by good qualities. A young artist, of somewhat irresolute character, picks up a wanderer of the streets in a dying state, and, after placing her under proper care, falls in love with her, and shortly after marries her. She has professed to give her previous history to him—in confessing that she had been betrayed and deserted. The artist, Geoffrey Ludlow,

succeeds in his art, and all goes on smoothly; but his wife Margaret sickens under the restraint and dulness of domestic happiness, missing the excitement of her former life. This is skilfully managed by the introduction of her husband's unrefined artist friends to his home, which makes her contrast them unfavourably with more fashionable gentlemen her old associates. Ludlow is brought into connexion with the Breakspear family, through his acquaintance with Annie Maurice, a distant relation, and now companion of Lady Beaufort's, whom he had formerly known at her father's rectory. Lord Caterham is the eldest son of the Breakspear house, a cripple, but a man of great goodness and talent. The younger son, Lionel Breakspear, is wild, and runs off at last to Australia, having committed forgery. While paying a morning visit to Lord Caterham, Mrs. Ludlow faints at the sight of a photograph of Lionel, of course her first lover, whom she had previously known as Leonard. Hearing of the return of Lionel to England, Margaret Ludlow deserts her husband and child, declaring that Lionel was the only one she cared for, and finally confessing that her only shame was not her former life, for she really had been married secretly to Lionel, but her committing bigamy with Ludlow. She declares that she had only married Ludlow to escape the "dark terrible streets." She goes to join Lionel, but is cast off with threats, as he, her first husband, wants now to marry Annie Maurice, to whom a large fortune has been lately left. She is lost to sight for a time, and her second husband nearly dies of brain fever. On Lord Caterham's death a clue to her discovery is put into Annie Maurice's hands. It appears that Lord Caterham had been informed of his brother's marriage by that worthy before he left England, and a detective had been employed to search for her. Margaret is discovered by Annie at last, and dies, having outlived her love for Lionel, and thinking only of Geoffrey Ludlow, and his ill-requited devotion. After her death, Geoffrey goes abroad for a time. Annie Maurice takes charge of Geoffrey and Margaret's child—having undertaken this charge partly from concern for Margaret, but more from her long-concealed attachment to Geoffrey. Ludlow returns from Italy, where he had gone to recover his spirits after the wreck of his hopes. He discovers, at last, Annie Maurice's love for himself, and reaches land at last. We should like to refer to a good many passages of the book, which is well put together, and written in a style that carries you along with it. We have not noticed several very able delineations of character from lack of space, not from want of will. We have shown, however, we trust, enough of the story to induce others to peruse the work, and can promise them much pleasure in so doing. "Land at Last" is a very just estimate of human nature, written with spirit, humour, and feeling; the interest never flags till the whole plot is developed. The manners and ways of the different classes are cleverly represented, neither coloured too weakly nor overcharged.

The story conveys, moreover, a capital moral. "The terrible streets," and the remorse of mind to the seducer, will go further to prevent the fall of women and the reckless lust of men than whole pages of mawkish sensibility about beauty and innocence, which do not exist in such an unalloyed condition anywhere in life.

Leighton Court: A Country House Story. By Henry Kingsley, Author of "Ravenshoe," "The Hillyars and the Burtons," &c. 2 Vols. (Macmillan & Co.)

NO one expects a love story, in the strict sense of the term, from the pen of Henry Kingsley. What one does expect is a lively description of men and women as they breathe and move; a clever delineation of the natural beauties of the scenery in which the story is placed, sketched on the spot by

a consummate artist; and a gushing love for dog and horse, and for the field-sports in which both take so prominent a part.

Some nice touches of his pen bring the river Wysclith before us, in its short, but impetuous, course to the sea, escaping stealthily from an elevated swamp among the Tors of Dartmoor, until its many trickling rills unite, and "make for a gap in the granite, below which the land drops away into an unknown depth, and twenty streams, from fifty glens and a hundred sunny hills, join it in mad glee. But in the swamp where the Wysclith "begins to live, and whimper like a new-born babe over his granite rocks," there, among yellow grass, and ling, and great black bog pits, the huntsman and the struggling hounds seek their prey. "Laura Seckerton has a clever sketch in her portfolio of the wild, desolate, elevated swamp, as it appeared on one of these occasions." In this odd quaint way the heroine is introduced in the second page, and the paragraph closes the description of the weird scene by simply saying that "Laura Seckerton could paint as well as ride, which is giving her very high praise indeed."

Laura is the only daughter of Sir Charles Seckerton, who is "chief man of this part of the county;" he took the hounds from Sir William Poyntz, "a very disreputable old gentleman" with three sons—one now Sir Harry Poyntz, the possessor of Berry Morecombe Castle; Robert, a wild and untamable boy; and the third, a beautiful winning lad, with no name and unacknowledged. Sir Harry is the villain of the story, Robert the hero, and Laura the pet heroine. Then we have the Countess of Southmolton, her grandmamma, coeval with, and bosom friend of, Mrs. Hannah More. The gentle influence of the Countess is still felt in her daughter's house. The character of Lady Emily Seckerton had been formed upon the most perfect model; but, partly from her natural vivacity, and partly from her having married a sporting baronet, she had become a trifle corrupted. Still she had vast reverence for her mother, and for her mother's system.

Laura is a "grand, imperial, graceful-looking girl, with a Greek face, bearing not much colour, and an imperial diadem of black hair, dark as the moor after a thunderstorm." Idle and dreamy, she liked rules for life such as Hannah More imposed, and such wells of passion as were in her were as yet unruffled by any wind.

A morning walk from six to seven. Religious reading in her own room till half-past. Breakfast at nine. Poor people from ten to twelve. Solid reading (but very few novels admitted into the house) till one. Lunch. Drive out with grandma in the afternoon. Dinner at seven. Prayers and bed at half-past ten.

The monotony of her life is relieved only by her riding. In spite of Hannah More, her father makes her a first-rate horsewoman, hence comes the romance of her life, in which she behaves well (notwithstanding the fact that she falls in love with her father's "first whip"), and conducts herself bravely in her engagement with Lord Hattersleigh, a character which the author contrives to invest with considerable interest, absurd and effete as he at first appears.

Of the plot we shall say no more than that it is sufficiently intricate to sustain the reader's interest to the end. That interest is kept alive by the manner in which the tale is told. Henry Kingsley's style is his own. Those who have read his former novels know this well. Never mind what he has to tell, he tells it in his own way, and that way is sure to carry the reader along with him. The world he lives in is not the hackneyed, commonplace world of other novelists, and the language he puts into the mouth of either lady or gentleman to whom he introduces you is not the measured conventional dialect of "goody" people, or the horsy slang of fast folk. Now and then expressions may startle, and set phrases seem too frequently repeated; but as long as the colloquial "don't" is admissible as an oral word, or "that sort of thing," and similar words and

sentences are current in society, he who would photograph society as he finds it cannot be found fault with for using them. If you merely want to read a love story, Henry Kingsley will not suit you; but if you want to go bodily amongst the people he introduces you to, his perpetual freshness and dash and spirit make up the best letter of introduction you can have.

THE MAGAZINES.

Those who have time to peruse *Maga* regularly, will be pleased with this number of *Blackwood*. Four different stories, annals, or series of reflections, are all carried on with unabated vigour. Some very good criticism has been elicited by "A Religious Novel," and the writer of the article "On the Position of the Government," &c., will, no doubt take credit for the apparent fulfilment of his prediction almost before he had corrected his proofs, yet not too soon to make his oracle still well worth consultation.

To read of progress in Scotland is always gratifying, and *Fraser*, which is so widely spread in England, must have a peculiar pleasure in announcing it; and when it is recorded by the pen of A.K.H.B., we are more inclined than ever to believe in it, and at all events to read about it, which is the next thing. If Mr. Timbs did not write a very good book about "Clubs," he has given rise to many good articles upon them; and none better than the one before us. It ought to be specially welcome to ladies, who will find how much Clubs have done for them; a fact, they are not generally too ready to admit.

Mr. Matthew Arnold, in the *Cornhill*, takes a Saxon view of Celtic literature; but it is that of a Saxon who has not forgotten that both nations are Indo-European. We are surprised to find the mass of Welsh books, printed and in manuscript, after all the deductions of Mr. Nash, is so great. If they have not received the attention they deserve, that is because the claims asserted for them are out of all proportion even to their undoubted value. "A Visit to the Suez Canal" contains a map, which will make many believe, for the first time, in the possibility of the enterprise.

The opening article in *Macmillan* derives a melancholy interest from the accident which has just happened to its learned and accomplished writer. Dr. Whewell has long since expressed his opinion upon Comte, and the bearing of his philosophy. It is somewhat at variance with the views usually advocated in our columns, but at the present moment we forbear from stricture. The titles of the other papers are attractive, but this magazine reached us too late to do more than allow us to glance over the familiar periods of the Master of Trinity. We trust this is far from being the last time he will illustrate the pages of *Macmillan*.

The *Victoria Magazine* does not tell us much about the excavations going on in the Phœnician burial-grounds at Rhodes; but it gives a very pleasing sketch of Kalavarda. The inhabitants of that village are an example of the little mischief sometimes produced by intermarriages; for they are all descended from two families who settled there ages ago.

The *Month* calls attention to the grievances Catholics suffer from the existing workhouse system, which compels the children of Catholic criminals, or outcasts, to take their first lessons in religion according to the forms of the Established Church. There may be some reason in the article; but it is going too far to complain of the "ruin of thousands of souls," because they are, in this indirect manner, converted to Protestantism through the shortcomings of their own parents.

Temple Bar gives the experience of "A Real Casual on Casual Wards." Mr. Parkinson advertised for one in the *Times*, and found one. He vouches for the absolute truth of the narrative. If he can secure as large a number of readers as the original, if not real, "Casual" the editor of the magazine may congratulate himself.

If there is any truth in the "Grave Remonstrance with some English Travellers in Holland," which a Dutchman has addressed to the editor of the *Argosy*, Mr. Murray will do well to make considerable alterations in the next edition of his Handbook. Think of the village

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of Brock turning out a sham! If English travellers do not know what they are about, at all events M. Vambéry does; or, at least, there is no Oriental who can contradict him; and if we wish to know all about "The Caravan in the Desert," and its Argosy—the camel—we know no better guide.

The only fault we have to find with the *Contemporary Review* is, that it comes out too frequently. It is scarcely possible to consider thoughtfully the great problems of "Rationalism," and those raised by Strauss, and by "Theodore Parker and American Unitarianism," when we know that the ensuing month will exact equally hard tasks from our religious and logical faculties. The article on "Church Hymn-books" is more popular, though it is hopeless to expect much agreement as to what a hymn-book ought to be, or even which is the best one in our power to get.

We have received the *Eclectic and Congregational Review*, the *Sunday Magazine*, the *Family Herald*, the *Mother's Treasury*, the *Missing Link Magazine*, the *Children's Hour*, *Good Words*, the *Cottager and Artisan*, the *Christian Treasury*, the *Leisure Hour*, the *Sunday at Home*, the *Sunday Teacher's Treasury*, the *St. James's Magazine*, the *Sixpenny Magazine*, the *Day of Rest*, the *Colonial Church Chronicle*, the *Church Builder*, the *Church of the People*, *Routledge's Magazine for Boys*, the *Boy's Own Magazine*, the *Boy's Monthly Magazine*, the *Children's Friend*, the *Infant's Magazine*, the *Pulpit Analyst*, the *Monthly Magazine*, the *Englishwoman's Domestic Magazine*, the *Young Englishwoman*, the *Band of Hope Review*, the *British Workman*, the *Ladies' Treasury*, *London Society*, the *Sixpenny Magazine*, the *Union Magazine for Sunday-school Teachers*, the *Bible-class Magazine*, the *Biblical Treasury*, the *Sunday-school Teacher's Magazine*, the *Youth's Magazine*, the *Child's Own Magazine*, the *Christian Spectator*, and the *British Navy and Army Review*, the *Mother's Friend*, and *Merry and Wise*.

MISCELLANEA.

FOOLISH letters do get occasionally into the columns of well-edited journals, and an odd instance of this has just occurred in *Notes and Queries*. Mr. Skeet, the editor of *Sir Lancelot*, had stated there that *rime* was the old spelling for *rhyme*. On this a Mr. GEO. V. IRVING—his name is worthy of capitals—writes to say that, by referring to Brockett and Jamieson, it will be found that *rime* expresses something "quite inconsistent with the idea of poetic lines." A reference to the two dictionaries shows that they contain no word *rime*, but do contain *rim*. With what meaning does the reader think? "*Rim, Belly-rim*, the membrane inclosing the intestines (the peritoneum); '*Mind, dinna burst your belly-rim*,' a caution among the vulgar in Northumberland." Brockett.

LITERARY and printing societies seem to forget that the principle of co-operation, which bears such good fruit when individual men join together, would produce much better if individual societies would join together. A good beginning has been made by the Early English Text Society in their proposed series of re-editions of early Dictionaries. They have invited the Philological and Camden Societies to join them in it, so that the books produced may get a circulation nearly treble that which either society could have insured them, and at a cost per copy little exceeding a third of that at which either alone could have produced them. We are glad to say that the older societies have generously welcomed the proposal of their younger contemporary. The Philological has resolved to join for the whole series—Levins, Huloet, the *Catholicon*, Withals, Baret, Horman; the Camden Society at present joins only for the first book—Levins. Lord Manson has, in the most kind manner, offered the loan of his valuable MS. of the *Catholicon*, A.D. 1483, which is so highly praised by Mr. Albert Way in the preface to his admirably-edited *Promptorium*; and we believe that this *Catholicon* is to be the second of the early Dictionaries issued by the joint societies. "Its contents are wholly distinct from those of the *Promptorium*," says Mr. Way, "and it is probable the MS. may be the author's holograph." The series is to be edited by Mr. Henry B. Wheatley, the author of *On Anagrams*, editor of *Hume's Orthographica*, *Merlin*, &c. It is hoped that the Clarendon Press will print the series, and take part in the venture.

WE have more than once called attention to the want of a general catalogue of the MSS. in our private libraries, and this week has shown that special catalogues even of important libraries are not always sufficiently complete. An early English romance of about 1430—50, new to writers and students of this century, was some years since found by the Rev. Mr. Groome, of Monk Soham, among the MSS. of Mr. John Tollemache, M.P. for North Cheshire, at one of his seats, Helmingham Hall, Suffolk. *Sir Generides* was till then unknown by name even to us of the present day. It was last year edited (by Mr. F. J. Furnivall) for Mr. Henry Hucks Gibbs, of St. Dunstan's, Regent's Park, as that gentleman's contribution to the Roxburghe Club, but has not yet been issued, because, we believe, as in the case of the production of a barrister, a dinner is a necessary preliminary to the appearance of a Roxburghe book. Be that as it may, some time ago Mr. Henry Bradshaw, of King's College, Cambridge, whose name has been often mentioned with honour in these columns, discovered in an old folio in Trinity Library, two torn leaves of an old black-letter copy of *Sir Generides*, but in a different metre to that of the Helmingham MS., which is in rhyming couplets—namely, in the seven-line ballad stanza. Last week Mr. W. Aldis Wright, Librarian of Trinity, the accomplished editor of Bacon's Essays, Smith's Concise Bible Dictionary, Shakespeare, &c., found among the papers of Sir John Fenn, the editor of the Paston Letters, another leaf of the old black-letter *Sir Generides*; and now, we are glad to say, Mr. Wright has found the whole poem in the seven-line stanza, in a magnificent volume of Lydgate's Poems, in the library under his charge. As in the Helmingham MS. the *Generides* is bound up with Lydgate's Troy Book, it is possible, nay probable, that we owe the newly-found poem to that writer's pen. We congratulate Mr. Wright on the discovery he has made, and hope he will make public the fruit of it through the Early English Text Society, or some other channel, next year. We much want a complete edition of Lydgate's works, for many of them have never yet been in type.

THE executive of the Dramatic College have awarded to Mr. A. R. Slous, a member of the Stock Exchange, the late Mr. T. P. Cooke's prize of 100*l.* for the best national drama. The title of the drama is "True to the Core," and it is understood that it will soon be produced at one of the West-end theatres.

ON Monday last Mr. Göschel, proposed by Mr. Kirkman Hodgson, M.P., and seconded by Mr. J. P. Gassiot, was re-elected a member for the City without opposition.

THE Rev. Dr. Millar, rector of St. Martin's, Birmingham, has been presented to the living of Greenwich, vacant by the death of the Rev. Henry Soames, author of "The History of the Reformation of the Church of England."

THE Senate of the University of Cambridge has declined Mr. Yates Thompson's offer to endow a lectureship on American History in that University, shackled as it was with the appointment being in the patronage of American professors.

M. RENAN'S "Vies des Apôtres" is on the eve of publication.

HER MAJESTY has presented to the British Museum one of the Roman tombs recently discovered at Old Windsor. The other tomb has been presented to the town of Windsor, and it is to be deposited in the local museum in connexion with the Literary and Scientific Institution of the borough, for the accommodation of which a new building, to be called the Albert Institution, is to be erected on the Bachelors' Acre, a vacant site in the centre of Windsor.

MR. GEORGE BANCROFT, the historian of the United States, delivered, as announced some weeks ago, the eulogium on Abraham Lincoln, in the presence of the Executive and Legislative and the Diplomatic Body at Washington, on the 12th ult., the anniversary of the late President's birth. The subject was a solemn one, and one which in the hands of a gentleman and a scholar could not fail to enlist the sympathies and respect of the whole civilized world. Mr. Bancroft, whom the writer knew at school as a boy, early evinced a strong tendency to fault-finding, and to tread upon other people's corns whenever he could find occasion. Here was a glorious opportunity not to be missed. The boy is now a grey-headed man; but there has been a great civil strife in America, and England and France did not think it wise and prudent to mix themselves up in the family quarrel. The representatives at Washington of the two countries were invited

to attend; and, just like the spiteful, cantankerous school-boy of old, Mr. Bancroft poured forth an ocean of silly vituperation against both nations, much to the gratification, it would appear, of certain rowdies present, no less than to the great disgust of all men of honourable feeling.

FROM Mr. Bancroft's philippic against Great Britain, which formed part of the Congressional obsequies in memory of Abraham Lincoln, held at the House of Representative at Washington on the 12th ult., we extract one little drop of comfort for our great middle class, in the following opening sentence of his fierce onslaught upon our Government and policy: "There was a kingdom whose people had, in an eminent degree, attained to freedom of industry and the security of person and property. Its middle-class rose to greatness. Out of that class sprung the noblest poets and philosophers, whose words built up the intellect of its people; skilful navigators to find out the many paths of the ocean; discoverers in natural science, whose inventions guided its industry to wealth, till it equalled any nation in the world in letters, and excelled all in trade and commerce."

THE Master of Trinity College, Dr. Whewell, was thrown from his horse on Saturday afternoon last, and was seriously injured. The accident happened between Shelford and Trumpington, about four miles from Cambridge, and was caused by the horse running away. He was conveyed home in a state of unconsciousness, which lasted till Monday morning. We are glad to hear that hopes are entertained of his recovery.

WE have to record the death of Dr. John Lee, President of the Astronomical and Numismatic Societies, at Hartwell, Bucks, on Sunday last, in his 81st year. Dr. Lee was the son of John Fich, Esq., and having taken his LL.D., was admitted to practice in Doctors' Commons in 1816. Dr. Lee assumed that name in 1827, under the will of a maternal uncle, who left him the estates of the Lees, of Hartwell.

THE *Portage Register* (Wisconsin) announces the death of Joseph Crele, supposed to have been the oldest man of the time, in Caledonia, in his 141st year. His baptism is recorded in the register of the Roman Catholic Church of Detroit, in the year 1725.

FROM the current number of Messrs. Longmans & Co.'s *Notes on Books*, published on Wednesday last, we learn that the "Diary of the Right Hon. William Windham, from 1783 to 1809," will be published during the present month. Towards the close of the month Messrs. Longmans will issue an interesting volume on the biography of Shakespeare, under the title of "Shakespeare's Sonnets never before Interpreted; his Private Friends identified; together with a recovered Likeness of Himself," by Gerald Massey, author of the "Ballad of Babe Cristabel." A volume of considerable interest will appear about the same time: "The Church and the World: Essays on Questions of the Day by Various Writers, edited by the Rev. Orby Shipley, M.A." During the present month Messrs. Longmans will also publish, "Messiah the Prince; or, the Inspiration of the Prophecies of Daniel, with Remarks on the Views of Mr. Desprez," by James W. Bosanquet; "Lectures on Animal Chemistry, delivered at the Royal College of Physicians," by William Odling, M.B., F.R.S.; and a new "Practical Dictionary of the English and German Languages," by the Rev. W. L. Blackley, M.A., and Dr. Carl Martin Friedlander. They also announce as nearly ready a new "Handbook for Readers at the British Museum," by Thomas Nichols; "Beethoven's Letters (1790—1826) in an English Translation, by Lady Wallace," in two vols. Svo, with portrait; Dr. J. E. Morgan, "On the Danger of Deterioration of Race from the too rapid Increase of Great Cities;" a new manual on poisons: "The Toxicologist's Guide," by John Horsley, F.C.S., of Cheltenham; and several new volumes of Gleig's School Series, and of Stevens and Hole's School Series.

A CONTEMPORARY of ours (*Athenæum*), which, when reviewing some time ago Professor Morley's "English Writers before Chaucer," complained that the author had not allowed sufficiently for the influence of printing,—has been treating Miss Elizabeth Cooper, the authoress of "The Life and Letters of Arabella Stuart," in somewhat the same way. The lady is one of those who reads the manuscripts she cites. She found a wrong entry in the Calendar of Domestic State Papers for 1579, making Sir William Cavendish, who died in 1557, alive in 1579; she called the attention of the authorities to this, and they altered the entry in accordance with her sugges-

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CORRESPONDENCE.

tion. The facts were embodied in Miss Cooper's book; the reviewer skipt the chapter containing them, called that and others "indifferent book-making," and produced for her edification the very mistake which she had discovered and proved to the Record Office authorities to be wrong. After this it is no wonder that the ninety and more original documents printed in the book for the first time, are treated as "a few original papers cited," and as containing "no addition to our knowledge," though they are the documents whose existence Disraeli conjectured, and which have never been produced till now. If Miss Cooper's reviewer should prove to be the same as Professor Morley's, the noble indifference to facts, and free allowance of blame for faults projected from the critic's own consciousness, will be at once accounted for. That repeated exposure will teach him modesty or fairness is hardly to be hoped.

NORTHUMBERLAND HOUSE is to be spared. Mr. Beresford Hope prevailed on the House of Commons to insist that Northumberland House shall be struck out of the Bill introduced by the Metropolitan Board.

THE octogenarian, Sir Moses Montefiore, left town on Monday last, on his intended visit to Jerusalem, accompanied by Dr. Hodgkin. Brother Ignatius, too, writing from Rome, expresses his intention of shortly starting for the holy city.

MONTE CASSINO, half way between Rome and Naples, for nearly fourteen centuries the very cradle and centre of religion and literature, the receptacle during the Dark Ages of what remains to us of the writings of the ancients, says "O.B.," in a letter to the *Daily News*, is one of the condemned monasteries.

THE new volume of the Napoleon Correspondence shows that the Emperor never wavered in his love of books. After a day of no little mental toil and political anxiety at Schönbrunn, he sits quietly down in the evening to write a long letter to his librarian at Paris on several matters of detail, all of which are full of interest to book collectors.

WE understand that Mr. Frederick Huth, the well-known book-collector, who purchased at the sale of the late Mr. George Daniel's library the celebrated unique collection of seventy black-letter ballads, printed between the years 1559 and 1597, for 750*l.*, is about to reprint them in a single volume, as his contribution to the members of the Philobiblon Society, and that the impression will be very limited, and only for private distribution. A more important addition to our collection of old English poetry can scarcely be imagined, whilst to the student of English philology the book will have a value beyond all price.

MESSRS. TRUBNER & CO. will shortly publish "The Lost and Perishing Beauties of the English Language," a dictionary of obsolete and extinct words and phrases, or of such as only have a still lingering existence in out-of-the-way places in Great Britain, the colonies, and North America, collected by Dr. Mackay on both sides of the Atlantic.

THE Prince of Wales will preside at the Archaeological Congress, to be held in London in July.

SILENTLY and gradually our old landmarks of history are being swept away. Amongst the most interesting of our historical relics was the Traitors' Gate of the Tower of London. It is now but a thing of the past, having been recently demolished.

AMONGST the recent acquisitions of the Imperial Library at Paris, is the original MS. of Humboldt's "Cosmos," presented by Mr. Buschmann, a member of the Academy of Sciences of Berlin, to the Emperor and to France.

THE French Government, says the *Owl*, after a long investigation, have adopted a system of communication by means of electricity between railway passengers and guards, which is at once economical and effective, and the Minister of Public Works has, by a circular letter, ordered its adoption on all the French railways within a year from this time.

THE half-term of the School of King's College, London, commences on Monday next.

AT Bedford Grammar School the mathematical mastership will be vacant at Easter. The salary is 130*l.* a-year, without residence; capitation fees, not exceeding 50*l.* each pupil; permission to take ten boarders. There will also be a vacancy at the same date for a junior assistant classical master, salary 100*l.* a-year; and for a junior English and arithmetic master, with a salary of 80*l.* a-year. Testimonials to be sent to the Rev. the Warden of New College, before the 12th instant. The election will take place on the 21st.

USE OF THE ANGEL NOBLE AT "THE HEALING."

To the Editor of THE READER.

Sir,—The document respecting the "payment of 2,000*l.* to Baptist May, Esq., upon account, for providing crowne gold for medals for his Majesty's use at The Healing," mentioned in your last number, is peculiarly interesting, as connected with an "Occasional Office" of the Church of England which existed in force for nearly seven hundred years, and which is mentioned in the early biography of Dr. Johnson, who was one of the last touched. Those who are curious in Ritualistic lore may be glad to know that the gold medal referred to was called in the later præ-Reformation Service Books "an Angel Noble," a compound word, which would seem to signify that, in the fourteenth century, when the word came into use, the Angel, a pure gold coin of the value of 10*s.*, had given place to the Noble, then first introduced, of the value of 6*s.* 8*d.* The Angel used at "The Healing" had the figure of an angel impressed upon it, whether in reference to the use to which it was then applied, or, as some assert, to perpetuate Pope Gregory's pun upon *Angli* and *Angeli*, is a point for numismatic archaeologists to discuss. Certain it is, that the Noble which replaced the Angel for the King's use at the ceremonial retained the name of the latter, as will be seen from the following extract:—

"The chaplain then shall say this Gospel following:

"In principio erat Verbum—in hunc mundum.

"Which last clause, *Erat lux vera, etc.*, shall still be repeated so long as the King shall be crossing the sore of the sick person with an Angel Noble: and the sick person to have the same Angel hanged about his neck, and to wear it until he be full whole."

The extract is taken from a very rare quarto volume, published in the reign of James II., entitled, "The Ceremonies us'd in the time of King Henry VII. for the Healing of them that be diseased with the King's Evil. Published by his Majesties command. London. Printed by Henry Hills, Printer to the King's most excellent Majesty for his household and chapel, 1686." It is reprinted by Mr. Maskell in the third volume of his "Monumenta Ritualia."—Your obedient servant, B. J.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Sir,—The Church Service, "At the Healing," appears in a small 24mo Prayer-book of mine, dated "Oxford, printed by John Baskett, Printer to the University, 1724," which is ten years later than the notice in this week's READER dates its final disappearance. It covers both sides of the last leaf, being part of the same sheet with the services for the King's Accession, the Restoration, and the end of that for "King Charles the Martyr." The sole words of title are, "At the HEALING." It should have been noticed, I think, respecting this singular service, that *all the Scripture* read therein is now known to be spurious. It was introduced thus: "The Holy Gospel is written in the 16th chapter of *S. Mark*, beginning at the 14th verse," and extended to the end of the pseudo-Mark's postscript—a fragment, by the way, out of which I have observed a peculiar tendency for the texts of London sermons of late (as well as of infidel discourses and essays) to be selected.—I am, Sir, yours very faithfully, Feb. 24, 1866. E. L. G.

FOOD SUPPLIES OF WESTERN EUROPE.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Sir,—I am aware that we have imported from Russia cattle and the Rinderpest, and that the latter has already destroyed more cattle than the entire imports from that country for the past ten years. My work treats of the food supplies of Western Europe. I have yet to learn whether Russia or Germany can be included in that title; but you will find (p. 239) a statement of the live stock of Russia in 1849 and 1857, and in p. 237 an estimate of the annual production of meat. Russia has a larger quantity of live stock than any of the countries there enumerated, but she has also a larger population, and the average quantity of meat per head is less than in many other countries. Russia is mostly a grazing country, and her supplies of meat will be principally confined to the portions of the year in which there is grass.

Is there not a little contradiction in praising British agriculture, and yet asserting that the

meat produced by it is inferior to that imported from other countries?

My object has been to stimulate British farmers to greater efforts, in the hope that they can produce a larger quantity of food for man, and thus increase the comforts of the people.—I am, Sir, yours very truly,

JOSEPH FISHER.

Waterford, Feb. 26, 1866.

SHAKESPEARE HIS OWN BIOGRAPHER.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Sir,—Judging from the article which appeared in a recent number of your journal, entitled, "A New Life of Shakespeare," you are sceptical as to the sonnets of Shakespeare having any interest beyond their literary and poetical merits. To some extent I am inclined to subscribe to your opinion. It was in the year 1838 that my old friend Mr. Charles Armitage Brown published "The Autobiographical Poems of William Shakespeare, being his Sonnets clearly developed, with his Character drawn chiefly from his Works," turning up, as it were, the first sod of a new line of Shakespeare criticism. The late Mr. Horace Smith, a ripe Shakesperian, was so impressed with the importance of Mr. Brown's discovery, that, in a casual conversation on the subject, he told me he considered it one of the most valuable sources of inquiry that had ever been opened up to us. To Mr. Brown belongs the merit of having removed the prejudice against the perusal of the Sonnets which Stevens, perhaps the most opinative and self-sufficient of all the editors of Shakespeare, had raised against them, denouncing them as such a mass of pedantry and nonsense that "the strongest Act of Parliament that could be framed would fail to compel readers into their service." Of the value of Mr. Brown's interpretation of the Sonnets I say nothing, because my own opinion does not go with it. He read in them a strange story of love and friendship; the former outraged and the latter surviving the blow.

Amongst the Literary Intelligence of "Notes on Books," mention is made of a forthcoming work entitled, "Shakespeare's Sonnets never before interpreted; his Private Friends identified; together with a recovered Likeness of Himself," by Gerald Massey, author of the "Ballad of the Babe Christabel."

From the table of contents, Mr. Massey would appear in some measure to take the same view of the value of the sonnets, as illustrating the history of Shakespeare, which a writer in the April number of the *Quarterly Review* propounded in 1864. That view made Shakespeare little better than, I presume, the paid inditer of love sonnets vicariously for other people, and chiefly for his patron, the Earl of Southampton, and held that the bulk of the sonnets have relation to the Earl's progress at Court during his courtship of Elizabeth Vernon, who afterwards became his countess.

Now, though, as stated, I have never been a convert to Mr. Brown's theory, of the two I think it far the more reasonable, and if Mr. Massey's is at all identical with that of the *Quarterly Reviewer*, I hope to see in your paper, in vindication of Shakespeare, as exhaustive and satisfactory an essay in reply, as that to which reference was made in the opening of this letter!—Your obedient servant, J. N.

THE WORD "UER," "YUER," OR "URE."

To the Editor of THE READER.

Sir,—Being lately engaged in having my cows vaccinated on the upper part of the milk-bag, or udder, in order to prevent or mitigate this fearful cattle plague, I wish to learn the true origin of the provincial word *uer*. In Northumberland, Durham, and parts of Yorkshire, the word *yuer*, or *uer*, prevails, and one seldom hears the rarer, but perhaps more correct, word, *udder*.

I fancied for some time that *uer* was the same as *ever*—i.e., a vessel, or receptacle for holding liquid, or milk—but this I now conclude to be erroneous. Possibly *uer* may be an abbreviation of *udder*, by omitting the double *d*. I cannot find either *uer*, or *yuer*, in our modern English dictionaries; although the word *ure* does occur in old Dr. Ash, 1775, which he terms "a local word," meaning *udder*. In Dinsdale's "Provincial Words used in Teesdale," 1849, it is there written *yure*, which I can scarcely think correct, as he derives it from the Dutch, *uier*. But since we have many Norse or Scandinavian words still remaining in common use in the eastern portion of the county of Durham, I am strongly inclined to consider it as the Icelandic *jufir*, or the Danish *yver*.—Yours, &c., J. H.

THE READER.

SATURDAY, MARCH 3, 1866.

SECOND-HAND SCIENCE.

A HEALTHY, comfortable ignorance is a fine thing now-a-days, and very hard to find. One can scarcely meet with it in a Sabbath-day's journey. People are getting so profoundly wise, and of such terribly quick parts, that if a few scientific puzzles were not to hand, with a *canard* now and then, there would really be no living in peace with one's wise neighbours. A hearty abandonment to laughter, fun, or mere animal enjoyment will soon be considered as sinful as long curls and expletives were in old Puritan days. Every occasion is so "improved," and men, women, and children so wickedly clever, that we are beginning to think Lord Bacon no wiser than a village pedagogue, and his namesake Roger, the real "light," because he said that he could teach all the science and languages he knew in six months, to an industrious man of good memory. Men find themselves wise as suddenly as Lord Byron found himself famous, by getting up some fine morning after a semi-scientific lecture. Young men's diaries are a sort of *suspirium de profundis*, and young ladies coquet with science long before they have finished their education or "come out" before a critical world. The antiquity of man troubles even a grave-digger, and the shepherd leaves his stars to muse on the origin of species.

There is much to admire in all this. There can be no patent or protection in learning. It is like love, water, and sunshine, and will find its way everywhere. But there is such a thing as getting too much of it, and too early, and too second-hand. It is one of the marvels of to-day that scientific discoveries are the property of all before they could even be known to the wise in a bygone age, but this very rapidity of transmission is by no means an unmitigated good. We get wise too soon, and hold our knowledge loosely. A lecture, an essay, or a few allusions in a novel, may make us seem very learned, but really go for very little. It is but second-hand science of a very poor quality. Locke has hit this modern pertness so wisely, that we cannot forbear quoting him. "The floating of other men's opinions in our brains," he says, "makes us not one jot the more knowing, though they happen to be true. What in them was science, in us is but opiniatry, whilst we give up our assent only to reverend names, and do not, as they did, employ our own reason to understand those truths which gave them reputation. Such borrowed wealth," he adds, with a striking illustration, "like fairy money, though it were gold in the hand from which a man received it, will be but leaves and dust when it comes to use." True as this most undoubtedly is of all philosophy, it is most especially so of science. There is nothing that suffers so much in transition. It is sometimes hard to recognize it, after it has passed through half-a-dozen minds. A story grows in transmission, but science lessens. A man puts his inferences and embellishments into a story, but, unless he has supplemented his first knowledge by

further research or experiment, his science becomes "bare, bald, and tawdry as a fingered moth." It is like a sixpence that has rubbed in so many pockets, and against so many penny pieces, that it is nothing but a counter.

Speciality has done much to produce this attenuation, but lecturing by unscientific men has done more. Division of labour is undoubtedly a fine thing, and contributes to advance everything to greater perfection, but it makes men less men all round, and less full-minded. Here is one man metal mad, and finding new metals everywhere, until one's very thoughts are somehow smelted in his presence, and any fine attitude of strong sense or manly self-assertion is only so much iron in the blood. Here is another who is rabid upon heat, and puts your poet's fine frenzy down to the rotation of worlds that was going on before Adam, and the sunshine in which some fairy fern leaves floated æons upon æons since. Another trips you up in your speech with Grimm's Law, until you fade into silence, grasping your poor martyred *h's*. It is the simple scholar now who works out the affiliations of the sciences, and the dull troglodyte who seasons our singularities with some strong common sense. We can survive this dissection, but may not wisely live out this sciolism. If people will be so anxious to have science made easy and popular, we must expect a pert shallowness and a troublesome conceit. It is too much to expect that a law, or a series of facts that have taken years to elaborate, shall be put into common minds like smart riddles or jingling rhymes. No one yet has made the higher mathematics as pleasant as hedgerow botany, and no one ever will. If we are to have hard facts, we must toil for them. If we are to place ourselves on a par with the arch-priests of science, we must graduate with them, and not think ourselves as wise as they even when we can follow the sweep of their minds. Scientific evidence is so minute and cumulative, that we must not expect to read first, and learn its alphabet afterwards. Science is precisely like mysticism was said to have been; you cannot understand it until you are yourself scientific. It may dazzle you into admiration for another, but until you become one with it you must not expect to dazzle others. The only hope we have in our popular lecturings upon science is, that they may attract, not satisfy; but this depends entirely upon the mode of handling a given subject, and the kind of hearer who is moved. They may soothe and bolster out with fancied good, like those intellectual and emotive dram-drinks called novels, or they may excite like morning light, and inspire like mighty love. If they impel to study, they cannot do harm; but if they do not, they are worse than useless, and a poet might as well feed upon glow-worms, as a healthy mind get strength from second-hand smatterers. If these lecturers would but content themselves with giving expositions of departments of science, instead of running out other peoples' wisdom through their own taps, and furnish their hearers with lists of authorities and works, and profitable hints as to study, we should have fewer pigmies upon Alps, less gossiping upon scientific fag-ends, fewer howls about heresy, fewer staggerings of faith, and more sympathy with the aims of

science, more culture, more charity, and more of that wisdom which Joubert sweetly calls "rest in light."

FREEMASONRY.*

WHETHER the illustrious fraternity who are popularly supposed to claim descent from the architect of King Solomon, and to have left their marks upon every imaginable temple and tower which has been built by the compass and the square, have become converts to the geological antiquity of Man, and decline clenching the early links of a pedigree which might prove for the first "Lodge" a humbler architecture, though a more universal brotherhood, than even masons rejoice to anticipate; or whether there is a disposition to veil the pretensions of Masonry before an unbelieving age; sure we are that Brother Findel has done wisely in tracing no higher origin for the craft than the mediæval guilds of stone-cutters (*Steinmetzen*).

The perennial existence of Masonry, and its transformation from Operative into Spiritual, may be explained reciprocally as cause and effect. Secret and even trade associations obey the law of close aristocracies. Their original vigour, the pressure of surrounding circumstances, and the necessity of unswerving loyalty to their traditions, determine the length of their span. The public aims of such bodies must be narrow; and when they have been attained, the disaffection of some who cannot surpass their predecessors, and the jealousy of those who are beyond the pale, are found sufficient to dissolve the proudest confederacies. French anthropologists have done something to show that it is rather incongruous alliances than too great exclusiveness which has caused their nobility to deteriorate. Perhaps it would be truer to say that if fresh blood is not allowed to introduce fresh ideas, it will poison the spirit without regenerating the body. The English noble does more than marry the daughters of tradesmen. He becomes attached to trade himself. The order remains, but its ideal is different. Peers lose power, but they retain precedence. They are not heads of families, but of firms.

The permanence, in some shape, of our aristocracy is a trite subject. That England has preserved Masonry also by a strictly analogous though reverse process, is scarcely known to the Brethren themselves. Yet the same epoch witnessed the social incorporation of the gentry, or lower nobility, with the masses, and the adoption of "Accepted" into the fraternity of "Free" Masons. This was no result of any deep-laid plan. The secrets of the order, so far as material architecture was concerned, became valueless with the introduction of plain walls and pilasters. When the ancient Church symbols lost their significance, the necessity for union against a tyrannical clergy was gone. But a practical instinct led some of the Craft to seek the assistance of a few non-operatives, and to receive from them the germs of a development of which at present we see no end. The Patron was an orthodox ornament to every guild; but he was not bound by its

* "History of Freemasonry, from its Rise down to the Present Day." By J. G. Findel. Translated from the Second German Edition, under the Author's personal superintendence. (Asher and Co.)

code. When the toe of the peasant trod upon the courtier's kibes, Charles II. was elected King of the Bowmen by the men of Bruges; and private gentlemen who found small comfort in the title of esquire, became willing to hold the dignity of master-mason. The new hierophants were resolved to magnify their office. They found themselves priests, not indeed of a religion, but of a mystery. They set zealously to discover that which is lost, and the steps by which the lodges of different countries were brought under what is substantially one authority, enables us to realize how independent Christian republics had of old coalesced into the organization of a Church. Those who know how to find, must be aware that the parallel might be carried much further. The theologian and the religious archaeologist stand daily in presence of illustrations from which, if they knew how, they might learn much; and it was in the very gardens of the Vatican itself that the language of Papal allocutions was first written in fire and blood.

Masonry knows no difference of creed; and it was certainly connected with the Deism of the seventeenth century. Still it would have been impossible in any but a Christian country, and it is but a pale shadow of Christianity after all. It has yielded up its breath in Russia, at the command of the Czar. It exiled itself from Italy to avoid a political exigency. But it represents a phase of the Teutonic mind. The attitude of the Mason towards religion is decidedly reverent. Yet it is a reverence which struggles to fasten upon the idea of an impersonal God. It would unite the Semitic conception of a Great Architect with the vague generalities of a Pantheistic benevolence. It might yield up important but open secrets in the hands of an anthropologist. The conception of a brotherhood exists in all races, but clothes itself under very different forms. Superficial comparison may account for some of the outward expressions of Masonry; but there are peculiarities in it which may well alarm the Pope, and cannot be explained by those who think the religious education of mankind is already complete.

THE SEWAGE QUESTION.

WHAT are we to do with our sewage? The question is irrepressible. It haunts us on all sides, and demands, in tones which we cannot resist, a solution of some kind or other. Parliament, with all the pressure upon its time which this exciting period brings, with all its Reform Bills, Cattle Plagues, and Fenian riots, must entertain it; and even this busy session cannot pass without some effort being made towards a settlement of the difficulty.

The fact must be frankly admitted, that the difficulty is a very serious one. No scheme for the disposal of the sewage could be adopted, or even satisfactorily tried, without the expenditure of an enormous sum of money, and the consequences which would attend the failure of any such scheme must be disastrous. Moreover, in spite of the careful investigation which the subject has received during the last few years, we cannot, as yet, by any means flatter ourselves that we know enough of the problems involved to make the selection of one out of the many proposed schemes a very safe undertaking.

And yet such a selection must be made ere long, for the existing system is fast rising into a nuisance which will be absolutely unbearable, and every one admits that we can only hope to arrive at the true mode of utilizing our sewage and keeping our rivers pure by a resolute and courageous trial of some one plan.

Now, there is one fundamental error which lies at the root of half the perplexity which has beset this question. It consists in the notion, which is very widely spread, although not universal, that it is necessary to make a profit by the sewage. Of course, no one in his senses would deny that it was extremely desirable to do so if possible; but to put profit in the first place, to convert the question into a merely monetary one, is to overlook the primary necessity of a substantial sanitary reform. The real problem to be solved might be stated in a very simple form. We must, in the first place, dispose of the sewage of our towns in such a manner that our rivers shall become pure and the public health remain unaffected. When we have agreed upon this as the first and essential condition, and not till then, we have a right to do our utmost to effect the alteration in the most economical way. From the very first we must bear in mind that, in spite of our best efforts, the result may be a loss instead of a gain. In that case, we must bear it contentedly, satisfied to pay our quota for the enjoyment of a great blessing, just as we now pay it for the scavengers who clean our streets and the police who guard them. We are, however, far from anticipating such a necessity. On the contrary, we think there is rational ground for hoping that, skilfully employed, the sewage may become a source of national revenue, or at any rate may occasion no sensible loss to the ratepayers.

One great element of success we have been gaining rapidly during the last few years—namely, a scientific and practical knowledge of the subject. The splendid generalizations of Liebig, erroneous as they have in some few instances proved, pointed out the lines which research should take, and those lines have been followed patiently and carefully by English experimentalists. The result has been, that a mass of facts of the highest value for future application has been collected. Some of these have contradicted the anticipations of Liebig; but, while wishing to avoid his few errors, we should be alike ungrateful and unjust if we denied his title to rank as the first and greatest of the pioneers in this branch of economics. On the 5th January, 1857, a Commission was appointed to "inquire into the best mode of distributing the sewage of towns, and applying it to beneficial and profitable uses." This Commission worked with the utmost assiduity for eight years, and their third report, dated March, 1865, comprises nearly all that is known on the subject. A committee of their number, consisting of Mr. J. B. Lawes and Professor Way, superintended for three years the application of the sewage of Rugby to land taken for the purpose, and, from an amazing number of experiments and analyses, have deduced some highly practical and useful suggestions. We will take this opportunity of drawing attention to some of the points which seem to have been established by these and other researches.

The first point relates to the value of the

sewage. There can be no question that this value has been greatly overrated by the earlier writers upon it. One scheme for the disposition of the London sewage, which was very strongly pressed upon the Metropolitan Board of Works, proposed to sell the sewage to farmers at two-pence per ton. Now, the average value of the materials in a ton of London sewage is not more, according to the Rugby reporters, than one penny, and they justly urge that farmers would hardly be likely to give even one-half of this sum for a manure the use of which would entail so much trouble upon them. Here, then, at the very outset, is a death-blow to most of the wild schemes which have grown out of the question, and which, not contented with promising magnificent dividends to their supporters, have generally offered equally magnificent payment to the ratepayers.

Another point which has been abundantly made out by the woeful experience of experimenters, as well as by scientific reasoning, is that sewage can only be economically applied in one way—in its natural fluid condition. All attempts to manufacture solid or portable manure from it have failed and must fail, for the simple reason that the ammonia, which constitutes three-fourths of the valuable portion of sewage, is, as every chemist knows, not only volatile, but extremely soluble in water, even when in combination. Hence any solid substance precipitated from the sewage is certain to contain next to none of this important compound. We are driven by this consideration to the admission that it is only by a system of irrigation that any benefit can possibly be obtained from the sewage. This narrows the inquiry very considerably.

The next question which suggests itself is one of extreme importance, and one which cannot, as yet, be answered with any great precision. It is the question of dilution. What is the average dilution of the sewage; or, in other words, how much water must we add to the land for every pound of useful manure? The answer, as far as London sewage is concerned, is given approximately by Messrs. Lawes and Way. It would appear from their calculations, that for every head of the population of London 100 tons of sewage (including rainfall and subsoil water) are poured into the river every year. The dilution is, of course, less in dry weather, but it is obviously necessary to deal with the average. Taking the value of this sewage at one penny per ton, the manurial value contributed by each individual of the population may be said to be 8s. 4d. per annum.* At this point it is that the great difficulty of the whole question presents itself. It becomes clear that, unless the expensive system of storage be adopted, the crops, whatever they may be, that are destined to receive the sewage, must be irrigated with it incessantly the whole year round, and, what is even more inconvenient, must receive by far the greatest quantity of it in the winter, and in wet weather, when they want it least. Here is a further limitation of the inquiry. The only crops which could stand so incessant a deluge are grass crops; and the Com-

* Recent experiments by Professor Way and Dr. Odling, give, as the average contribution of each individual per annum, a somewhat smaller sum—namely, 7s. per head.

mittee of the Sewage Commission therefore limited themselves, very wisely, to the study of the effects of an incessant application of the sewage of Rugby to grass land. Their results are in the highest degree interesting, but we can do no more than quote a few of the most striking, referring our readers for further information to the report we have already mentioned.

Two fields were divided into four portions each. In each field one of these portions was left unsewaged. One was treated with 3,000 tons of sewage per annum, one with 6,000, and the last with 9,000 tons. On comparing the average yield in three years it, was found that—

1. The unsewaged portion gave 3 tons of hay per acre per annum.
2. The 3,000 ton portion yielded 5 tons of hay.
3. The 6,000 ton portion, 5½ tons.
4. The 9,000 ton portion, 6½ tons.

It will be seen that the return per ton of sewage is greater when comparatively small amounts are used. The expense of distribution is, however, increased in a like proportion, and the reporters believe that the employment of 5,000 tons per acre per annum will, in most cases, give the best results. It seems to us that this last point is open to some doubt. We can hardly see that it is yet demonstrated that the application of a smaller quantity might not result in financial, as it certainly would in sanitary, advantage. It is doubtful whether it would ever be possible to effect a thorough purification of the sewage water if it were applied to the land in such enormous quantities.

The grass obtained in the experiments was devoted to the fattening of cattle and to the production of milk. For the former purpose it is unsuited, except when associated with oil-cake, but with milking cows the result was highly satisfactory. It appears clearly proved that with 5,000 tons of sewage "an average gross return of from 30% to 35% per acre in milk, at 8d. per gallon, may be anticipated."

With data so valuable in our possession, action in some form or other ought surely to be taken before long. It has been wise, no doubt, to refrain from binding the country to a system, whilst the preliminary experiments were pending; but may we not now hope that the period for a more comprehensive experiment has well-nigh arrived? Without wishing to dogmatize upon so difficult a subject, we will venture upon one remark, which, in the present state of our knowledge, seems to us to be incontrovertible. Except under very peculiar circumstances, it is unlikely that the utilization of the sewage of towns can be profitably effected by private enterprise. More than this, it appears to us undesirable that it should be effected in such a manner, even if it were possible; for those to whom the undertaking is committed should, as we have before said, have for their first object the attainment of a thorough sanitary reform. We could hardly expect this to be the primary motive with a body of directors, goaded incessantly by the thought of an approaching dividend meeting.

There is but one available alternative, and this alternative might be adopted without ultimate hardship to the rate-payers. Let the Government force the onus of the task upon the local boards in the case of country towns, and upon the Metropolitan Board of Works in the case

of London, investing them with compulsory powers for the purchase, if necessary, of the requisite land. In some cases such a purchase would be unnecessary, for it would be possible to find farmers willing to contract for the sewage; but in others it would doubtless devolve upon the boards to do the work themselves. As to the local boards, let them have all reasonable latitude of time. Let them, if necessary, be assisted with temporary Government aid. Teach them and direct them. Show them the best way of reimbursing themselves for their initial expense by the judicious management of the lands which receive the manure; but still force them to act, and exercise a constant and vigilant supervision upon them to see that they do so efficiently. This supervision might, perhaps, be safely entrusted to the Metropolitan Board of Works, who would of necessity be in possession of the best information upon the subject, and whose operations are so immediately under the public eye, and the control of Parliament, that flagrant abuse would be next to impossible. Individual hardship and difficulty would, of course, arise, especially in those cases where it was necessary to have recourse to pumping for the distribution of the sewage. Such cases must be examined patiently, and dealt with in a fair and liberal spirit.

We cannot but believe that the plan here indicated is more likely to succeed than any of the private schemes which have hitherto been advanced. Some of these are, indeed, so wild, that we will adopt for each one of them the words Baron Liebig applied to the most notorious of the class—the scheme of Messrs. Napier and Hope—"The carrying out of this scheme would not only be a squandering of an enormous amount of money, but before long would also be looked on as a national calamity."

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SCIENCE.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS OF PALESTINE.

[No. I.]

OUR scientific readers will remember that we have on former occasions referred to a report upon the Geology and Physical Geography of the Dead Sea, in preparation by M. Louis Lartet, the eminent geologist and paleographer, who accompanied the Duc de Luynes in his recent expedition to that interesting region. M. Lartet's report has at length appeared in the Bulletin of the Société Géologique, before which society it was read on the 1st of May last. It is so full and detailed, and appears so thoroughly to exhaust the question, as far as our present knowledge goes, that we have determined to translate it *in extenso*.

NOTE ON THE FORMATION OF THE BASIN OF THE DEAD SEA, AND ON THE CHANGES WHICH HAVE TAKEN PLACE IN THE LEVEL OF THE LAKE. BY M. LOUIS LARTET, &C., &C.

I.—On the Origin of Salt Lakes in General.

Of all the problems which the study of the physical geography of continents is continually bringing before the notice of geologists, there are few which more eminently merit their attention than that of the origin of salt lakes or interior seas.

The question has occupied physical philosophers from the earliest times, and the explanations proposed have been usually based upon the probability of an ancient communication between these isolated basins and the main ocean.

The theories of Xanthus, Strato, and Eratosthenes, which were accepted by most of the ancient philosophers, have been consecrated by the great authority of Buffon and Pallas, so far as concerns the salt lakes of Western Asia.

The question of the Asiatic lakes was entirely re-examined by Humboldt, who applied to it all the information which his erudition and his profound knowledge of Asia enabled him to give. He also made use of the new results due to the researches of the Russian savans on the subject of the depression in the level of the Caspian, as well as of his own discoveries on the physical constitution of Central Asia.

These remarkable researches led him to the conclusion that before the so-called historic era, and at an epoch not far distant from the latest changes in the surface of the earth, the salt steppes of Turan were covered by an inland sea, which comprised both the Aral and the Caspian. This sea (to which the Asiatic traditions of the primitive existence of a bitter sea would seem to refer) probably communicated on one side with the Euxine, and on the other, by larger or smaller channels, with the Frozen Sea, and the lakes of Telegoul, Tagis, and Balgache. The existence of a vast sheet of brackish water occupying, at a time anterior to the human period, large districts around the Caspian, and maintaining, like the Caspian, a fauna of a character intermediate between those of ordinary lakes, and of our present seas, may be taken as proved by the researches of the geologists who have explored the countries in question since Humboldt's time. It was, therefore, not unnatural to refer to this primitive sea the origin of those salt lakes which exist in such large numbers about the Caspian; and this theory, on the other hand, necessarily exercised a great influence on the proposed explanations of the formation of other salt lakes existing below the level of the ocean. In fact, M. Angelot, in endeavouring to make a general application of this theory, was led to consider the Dead Sea, and the other depressed salt lakes in the neighbourhood of the Mediterranean Sea, as so many remnants of the great Asiatic Ocean, which he believed to have originally occupied the centre of the continent, and to have divided it into three distinct districts.*

This theory has been discussed by M. d'Archiac,† who has demonstrated that it was impossible, even in the Tertiary era, for any modern communication to have existed between the Dead Sea and the Aralo-Caspian Basin, and, in fact, that it was impossible to believe that these two basins had ever formed part of a single sea. And, on the other hand, it may be asked whether, in order to explain the saltiness of the water in these lakes of depression, it is absolutely necessary to attribute to them a modern origin, and whether it is not equally natural in most cases to seek for the source of their saltiness in the districts which surround them.

Many of the salt lakes in Western Asia have, in fact, considerable masses of rock-salt in their immediate neighbourhood, or are surrounded by districts very rich in saliferous deposits.‡ The same thing is true of a large number of the lakes of Southern Russia,§ and of Asia Minor.|| Smaller deposits of salts have been observed in the neighbourhood of the Chotts and Sebka's of Western Africa,¶ as well as of the Great Salt Lake of the Rocky Mountains of America.**

The fact of the existence of large masses of rock-salt on the edge of the Dead Sea, known from time immemorial, and mentioned in the chronicles of the Crusades, as well as in the works of more modern travellers, was familiar to M. Angelot, and he has endeavoured to explain it in harmony with his theory, by supposing the lake to have deposited

these masses of salt at a time when its waters stood higher than at present: but upon this M. d'Archiac remarks with justice, that if there ever was a moment when the saturation of the water of the Dead Sea was sufficient for the formation of the existing masses of salt, it is difficult to see why, at the present day, when the level is lower, the saturation of the water should be less than when it was higher, since the conditions which keep down the saltiness of the Lake of Tiberias do not exist in the Dead Sea.*

Further—without intending to dispute that certain lakes (such, for example, as the closed basins at the mouths of the Rhone, or those along the sea-coast of Lower Egypt) may have had an oceanic origin—we are of opinion that it is not necessary to have recourse to the hypothesis of M. Angelot to explain the saltiness of a large number of these continental basins, and in particular of the Dead Sea. Is it necessary to conclude, with the learned geologist in question, that, because these continental depressions contain greater or less extent of salt or salt water, they are therefore in every case the isolated bottoms of ancient sea lakes, in which an accumulation of salt has taken place through the evaporation of their water? May it not be that the exceptional position of such basins has been favourable to the progressive accumulation within them of saline materials constantly collected from the neighbouring districts, and brought in by surface drainage, or even by subterranean springs?

When the districts round a lake contain beds very rich in salts, it is easy to understand that the concentration of its waters will be thereby powerfully assisted. A lake which is acted on at the same time by a high degree of saltiness in the waters which flow into it, and by an active evaporation, will in course of time attain a degree of saltiness quite abnormal.

It is in the Dead Sea that this double action is seen most clearly, and has produced the greatest effects. The importance of the study of the basin of that lake for the solution of the questions relating to the origin of salt lakes of depression did not escape M. Angelot, as is shown by the very title of his work, and by the memorandum with which he accompanies his conclusions—

"A complete investigation of the Dead Sea may throw light upon this question, and possibly negative part of my hypothesis, but all that we know at present of the districts which form the basin of that lake seems rather to support than to contradict me."†

At the time M. Angelot wrote these words, but little positive information was possessed of the geology of the basin of the Dead Sea. A few years later the Austrian geologist, Russegger, was called to Egypt by Mehemet Ali. In the course of numerous journeys he visited Syria, and the northern portion of the basin of the Dead Sea, and in his work‡ on the geology of that region, he has combined his own personal observations on the western side of the Dead Sea with information obtained from the Arabs, and with occasional notes on those portions of the basin which he did not himself visit, extracted from the travels of Seetzen, Burckhardt, Robinson, Schubert, &c. Although often mistaken as to the age and distribution of the rocks which form the basin of the lake, Russegger nevertheless perceived with remarkable sagacity the primitive isolation of the basin. Amongst other things he suggested that the saltiness of the water might be caused by the constitution of the surrounding rocks.

Some ten years later, Dr. Anderson, who was attached as Geologist to the American expedition of Lieutenant Lynch, made a more complete and detailed investigation of the north of the basin and of a portion of the shore of the lake,§ but his work, though conscientious and carefully done as far as description goes, is very vague and even contradictory on the subject of the origin and mode of formation of the lake and basin. He appears to admit the return of the ocean after the first immersion of the basin, and the excavation of the principal wadys which form the hydrographic system of the region. Nevertheless, it is easy to see that he inclined to the belief that a large portion of the salts in solution in the water may have been furnished by the surrounding rocks. It is this, no doubt, which induced him to make researches on the solubility of some of these salts in water charged with carbonic acid.

* "Histoire des progrès," &c., i. 301.

† Angelot, p. 339.

‡ Reisen in Europa, Asien, und Afrika," iii. pt. 2, 196.

§ "Official Report of the United States Expedition to the Dead Sea and River Jordan." By Lieut. Lynch. Baltimore, 1852; p. 79.

* Recherches sur l'origine du haut degré de salure de divers lacs placés dans le fond de grandes dépressions du sol des continents et en particulier de la Mer Morte, suivies des considérations sur l'origine du sel gemme en couche. (Bull. Soc. Géologique de France, Ser. I. xiv. 356.)

† Histoire des progrès de la Géologie i. 300.

‡ See these indicated in the geological map of Western Asia which accompanies the 2nd Vol. of Ermann's Archives (1842).

§ M. de Verneuil has pointed out that the Lake Elton and the other salt lakes of Orenburg are situated in the Zechstein, a formation frequently containing much rock-salt.

|| See Dubois de Montpereux (Voyage autour du Caucase); Abich (Mem. Acad. S. Petersburg, 1859); and Hamilton (Trans. Geol. Society, 2nd Series, V. 589).

¶ See Fournel, Renou, and particularly Dubocq (Ann. des Mines, 1853, p. 249.)

** See Fremont (Report, &c., Washington, 1850-158.) The name of one of the affluents of the Great Salt Lake is Rio Salado. On the salt lakes of Central America, see D'Orbigny, and (in opposition to him) Darwin (Geolog. Observ. in S. America, 1846.)

3 MARCH, 1866.

During the last year I enjoyed the rare opportunity of exploring, under the wise and able direction of the Duc de Luynes, the entire circumference of the Dead Sea, and its basin from end to end. Our examination was necessarily rapid, but I was able in different parts of the basin (especially its eastern and southern portions, hitherto so little known) to observe many facts which appeared partially to confirm the predictions of Russegger, and I have thus come to the conclusion that this lake—the most characteristic type of a salt lake of depression—has never been in communication with the neighbouring oceans, although its waters formerly stood at a much higher level than they now do.

My conclusions are based upon a number of observations relating to the principal points of the question, and which it is now my object to state in detail.

II.—General View of the Physical Geography of the Basin of the Dead Sea in relation to the Geology of the Country generally.

Few countries are so simple in their orographical and hydrographical constitution as Syria. Its Mediterranean coast is in general bordered by a chain of mountains parallel to the shore-line. Beyond these mountains, and running nearly due north and south, is an enormous trench consisting of valleys, often of great depth, the centre portion of which was happily named by the ancients *Cœlesyria*, or "Hollow Syria."

The trench in question, or rather the series of successive valleys which compose it, forms a natural and sharply-defined limit between the districts which border on the Mediterranean, and are under Turkish dominion, and the high plateaux to the east, which are incessantly traversed by the free wandering tribes of Bedouins.

The changes in level in the bottom of the trench divide it into several basins which are drained by three principal rivers—the Nahr-el-Asy (Orontes), the Nahr Kasimieh (Leontes), and the Sheriat-el-Kebir (Jordan). The first of these runs northward, the other two southward. The Nahr-el-Asy and the Nahr Kasimieh both take their rise in the highest portion of the trench (the plain of the Bekaa), and from that common point of departure proceed in different directions, both emptying themselves into the Mediterranean—the first to the north near Antioch, the second to the south near Tyre—each abandoning its original course through the valley at a point not far from its entrance into the sea, and by a sudden turn forcing a passage across the chain of hills which separates it from the sea.

The other stream—the Jordan—so renowned for the part it has played in both Jewish and Christian history—rises at the foot of Antilibanus, in the neighbourhood of Hasbeya, and not far from the bend of the Nahr Kasimieh. In its first portion it bears the name of Nahr Hasbany, but after having received large accessions of water from the springs at Baniyas and Tell-el-Kadi (usually considered as the real sources of the Jordan), it assumes its ancient and venerable name. It then passes, in its course, from north to south, through the Bahr-el-Huleh (Samachonitis) and the Bahr Tubarieh (Lake of Tiberias or Gennesareth); on leaving which it receives the waters of a considerable affluent—the Wady Jarimuk. Further down it is joined by several other torrents and streams, and, under the Arab name of Sheriat-el-Kebir, at length throws itself into the Dead Sea—the final receptacle of the waters of this basin.

The valley of the Jordan runs in the general direction of north and south—while the valley of the Bekaa is forced out of that direction by the parallel chains of Lebanon and Anti-lebanon, between which it lies. The valley of the Jordan is of great length, and stretches in a straight line from Anti-lebanon to the Dead Sea. On its left side it is bounded by the cliffs and abrupt slopes which lead to the broken plateaux of Jaulan, Adjlun, and the Belka; on its right, the valley is separated from the Mediterranean by the highlands of Judah, and the hill country of Galilee, which connects those highlands with Lebanon, and which, to use the graphic expression of Mr. Sherwood,* form the "dorsal fin" of Palestine.

The Dead Sea itself is hemmed in between the mountainous country of Judah and the mountains of Abarim, the buttresses of the high and undulating plateaux of Ammon and Moab. Its dense and bitter waters conceal the most depressed portion of that vast trench of

which its basin forms a part, and which stretches still further south into Arabia Petrea.*

In fact the Arabah—which, like an enormous ditch, separates the mountains of Idumea from the peninsula of Sinai—follows so nearly the general direction of the Jordan valley, that both it and the Gulf of Akabah, which follows it on the south, may fairly be considered as a prolongation of the longitudinal trench we have so often mentioned.

(To be continued.)

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

THE skilful glass-blower, Geissler, of Bonn, so well known for his vacuum tubes to illustrate the effects of induced electricity, as well as for many other useful forms of apparatus for experiments in natural philosophy, has constructed a very compact mercurial barometer for travellers. It consists of a strong glass tube of the required length, permanently fixed in an iron frame; this case is made of two equal and precisely similar parts, connected at one end by a strong brass hinge, so that the two parts can be shut together like the covers of the long "metallic memorandum books" which merchants use. To allow of this being done, the glass tube itself has a peculiar construction; it also is made in two parts, and the two ends which are set into the brass hinge are connected by being bent towards each other at a right angle and then most carefully ground the one into the other. The brass hinge thus fills the double office of connecting the two halves of the case and of giving support to the glass hinge of the tube itself. A spring at the side supplies just sufficient pressure to enable the glass hinge to turn freely. The upper half of the glass tube is rather less than half an inch in diameter, and is of course closed at the top. Along its side runs a millimetre scale, with vernier and sighting ring graduated down to some fifteen inches below the normal height of the barometric column. To reduce the weight as much as possible, the lower half of the tube has a much finer bore, but its slender proportions are protected by its being inclosed in an outer glass tube of the same diameter as the upper half; at its lower extremity it bends upwards, and is fused into the cistern. This reservoir is, to all intents and purposes, a little glass stoppered bottle of about an ounce capacity, having three orifices, two at the bottom and one at the top; the upper one is fitted with a hollow glass stopper, which has a small hole in the side and on the ground part for the escape of the last bubble of air when the cistern is to be completely filled with mercury; of the two orifices in the bottom of the vessel one has already been mentioned as communicating with the vertical column; in the other a small glass tube is inserted, which passes about halfway up into the cistern, and is narrowed to a fine point, whilst to its other end, protruding a short distance from the bottom of the cistern, a strong piece of indiarubber tubing is attached, communicating with another piece of stout caoutchouc tube, $\frac{3}{16}$ in. in diameter and 5 in. long; this receives the excess of mercury when the barometer is in use. It must also be mentioned that the other end of this caoutchouc store-tube is closed with a short glass tube and a cork. For the journey the cistern must be entirely filled with mercury and carefully stoppered. When an observation is to be made the barometer case is opened, fixed rigidly in a plane by means of a sliding plate provided for this purpose on the outer side of the brass hinge, and suspended vertically by the ring at its upper end. The glass stopper is then withdrawn, when the excess of mercury in cistern and column runs down through the little pointed glass tube into the caoutchouc receiver until the metal in the reservoir stands at the same level as the glass point itself—this is the zero from which the millimetre scale is reckoned, so that a reading of the mercurial column can now be made. To reduce the weight to a minimum, as much as possible of the iron plate of the case had been cut away, so that the complete instrument, when filled, weighs only a few pounds. This form of barometer can likewise be had in a wooden frame, in which case, of course, the weight is still less. Its compactness will be acknowledged when it is mentioned that, when shut together,

* I am only able here to give the main features of the physical geography of this region. For further detail I must refer my readers to the excellent description in Dr. W. Smith's *Dictionary of the Bible*, under the head of "The Salt Sea." Mr. Grove has there succeeded in bringing together in a few pages all the most interesting and exact information on the Dead Sea and its basin.

the instrument measures 18 in. in length, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in breadth, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. in thickness. An objection might be raised to this form of barometer resting on the uncertainty whether a glass hinge of this nature, however carefully ground, will remain air-tight for any length of time. Some years of practical working with the instrument will be required to decide this question.

PROFESSOR HELMHOLTZ, the physiologist in the University of Heidelberg, is publishing a very interesting series of popular scientific lectures. The first part of the course, just issued by Viewig und Sohn, of Brunswick, contains four lectures given by the professor during the last few years at some of the universities in Germany. They have for subjects: "The Position of Natural Science amongst the Several Branches of Knowledge;" "The Scientific Labours of Goethe;" "The Physiological Causes of Musical Harmony;" and "Ice and Glaciers." They are illustrated by several excellent woodcuts of apparatus, and diagrams. The succeeding parts are to contain a course of lectures on "The Law of the Conservation of Energy."

THE island of Santorin, or Thera, is of a crescent shape, and is apparently part of the crater of an enormous volcano, eighteen miles in circumference. The islands of Therasia and Aspronisi were separated from Calliste, the Beautiful, as Santorin was then called, by an earthquake, described by Pliny. Three small islands, thrown up at different periods, are situated nearly at the centre of the crater, and it is to the south of one of these, Neo Kaimeni, that a new island has just made its appearance, which phenomenon has been fully described by the Athens correspondent of the *Times*. It will probably form a junction with Neo Kaimeni, which was raised in 1707 and the following years. The best account of the island of Santorin and the surrounding islets is perhaps that contributed by Lieut. Leicester to the twentieth volume of the *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*. Those of our readers who care to know more of this interesting volcanic group, in which, as Humboldt says, we may trace the perpetual efforts of nature to form a volcano in the middle of a crater of elevation, will do well to refer to it. The paper is accompanied by an Admiralty Chart, on which the soundings are laid down.

IN consequence of an important mission to Central America, Dr. Berthold Seeman has been compelled to resign the secretaryship of the Botanical Congress to be held in May next. Dr. Masters has been appointed to the vacant office.

WE understand the Emperor of the French has caused a letter to be forwarded to the author of the "Harvest of the Sea," expressing his approbation of the author's views.

MR. JAMES BRITTEN, of High Wycombe, is collecting materials for a Flora of Buckinghamshire, and would be glad of any assistance in the way of local lists, notes, &c., of plants in any part of the county. The value of such communications would be much enhanced if accompanied by illustrative specimens.

THE Swiss philosophers who took up their residence on the pass of St. Théodule, last autumn, for the purpose of making meteorological observations during the winter, are all well, and, though posted at a height of 10,241 feet, they do not seem to have suffered much from cold.

THE President of the Royal Society will hold *soirées* at Burlington House, Piccadilly, on the 10th of March and on the 28th of April.

MR. GEORGE F. BURDER, of Clifton, states that a spot, or rather cluster of spots, of very unusual size, may now be seen on the sun's disk. It is so large as to be conspicuously visible to the naked eye when the sun is looked at through a coloured or smoky glass, or, as happened on Monday morning, through a fog of suitable density.

SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENCE.

THE GLACIAL SUBMERGENCE.

Glasgow, Feb. 26, 1866.

I ADMIT that the view which I had been led to adopt regarding the way in which an ice-cap would affect the ocean-level is incorrect. I am right as regards the extent to which the earth's centre of gravity would be displaced by the ice-cap, but wrong as regards the extent to which the ocean level would be affected by the displacement.

I fear that your correspondent "M." has also fallen into a mechanical error in regard to this subject when he says, "This is certain: that, just as the moon produces a tide on the face of

* *American Journal of Science*, 1845, p. 1; and "*Bibl. Univ. de Genève*," 1845.

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the earth exposed to her, and a similar tide on the opposite side twelve hours distant, so our ice-cap at the North will produce a flow of water towards the North Pole, and another to the South Pole."

This by no means follows. The two cases are not analogous. The rise of the water under the attraction of the ice-cap is a purely statical effect. But the rise of the tidal wave is as much a dynamical effect as a statical. The rise of the water on the side farthest from the moon cannot be accounted for upon purely statical principles. Were the motion of the earth and moon around their common centre of gravity to cease, and their centres of gravity prevented from approaching towards each other by some other means than that of the centrifugal force resulting from their motion round the common centre, the wave on the side farthest from the moon would have no existence. The mere attraction of the moon would not produce such a wave.

I am glad to observe that we are to have a solution of the submergence question by one eminently qualified to deal with all its difficulties. But I fear that the question cannot, in the meantime, be settled in the negative, because any such result, based on the assumption that the earth is a rigid mass throughout, cannot be accepted as satisfactory. This is evident; because if the interior of the globe be in a fluid condition, and composed of materials differing greatly in density (a supposition by no means improbable), the conditions of the problem are altogether changed. For in such a case the ice-cap would not only attract the ocean the same as it would do were the earth rigid throughout, but the heavier materials in the interior would be drawn towards the side on which the ice-cap lay, and the lighter materials would be pushed to the opposite side. This would, of course, increase the density of the side on which the ice lay and diminish the density of the opposite side, and this in turn would tend to pull the ocean in the direction of the ice-cap.

The question is one of extreme complexity, and will not, in all probability, be settled off-hand by any single determination.

JAMES CROLL.

SURELY your correspondent has been overhasty in condemning my approximate solution of the question of glacial submergence, on the ground that my equation does not provide for a flow of water towards the pole opposite to the ice-cap, as in the case of the lunar tides. The conditions are very different. The more distant tidal wave is caused by the moon drawing the earth towards her more than she does the water beyond. But if the moon were rigidly connected with the earth as our ice-cap is, no such effect would be produced, and we should have only a single wave. What "M." calls "the old heresy" was adopted, as far as relates to the cap, for the sake of simplifying the calculation. It will probably not make any material difference in the result. There is, however, a source of error which has escaped notice, and that is the attraction of the particles of the disturbed part of the ocean among themselves. I trust that the solution which we are promised will clear up these difficulties, and that results will be given that may be compared with mine for the sake of testing them.

The complete equation to the surface is $\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{nr'} = \frac{1}{c}$. This gives slightly different values from the approximate form which I gave in your paper of the 10th inst. They are for (n) the ratio of the earth (including the undisturbed ocean) to the ice-cap, 32859, and for the height of the ice-cap above the ocean level at the pole 3.6129 miles. These, as before, are based on M. Adhemar's assumptions.

O. FISHER.

CHINESE MIRRORS.

Upper Clapton, Feb. 26, 1866.

CHINESE mirror consists, as many of your readers doubtless know, of a plate of white metal, polished on one side, and embossed, sometimes with letters, always with representations of birds and trees, on the other. Some, but only a few, of these mirrors possess this property: if a beam of strong light, such as that of the sun or of the electric or oxyhydrogen lamp, be allowed to impinge upon the polished surface of the mirror, and to be reflected upon a screen, a bright image of one or other of the raised letters upon the back of the mirror can be seen in the patch of light produced. A short time ago my attention was drawn to this fact, and I was

informed that the cause of this phenomenon was not known. I beg your permission to lay the results of my investigation of the subject before your readers. I obtained the use of one of these mirrors, which possessed the property in question, in order that I might examine it. The polished surface was not plane, but very slightly convex. On observing the image of the glass globe of a gas burner as the mirror was slowly moved so that the reflected beam came to the eye from that part of the mirror on the back of which there was a raised letter, I saw first a depression on the edge of the image, followed by an excrescence which lasted for a short time only, and then another depression, which gradually disappeared. Now these effects would be produced by, first, an increased curvature, then a plane surface, followed by another increased curvature, and ultimately the ordinary convexity of the mirror. This observation, combined with the fact that the appearance of the image of the letter upon the screen is bright, suggested at once the solution of the problem. Those parts of the mirror which are immediately in front of the raised letters do not possess the same convexity as the rest of the surface, but are more or less plane. It would seem as if the mirror in cooling had warped into a convex form, with the exception of those parts in front of the raised letters, which, by pressure in all probability, had been forced to retain a plane surface. As a further proof of the truth of this explanation, I may mention this fact: A few days ago I went to an antiquarian shop in Piccadilly, opposite St. James's Church, and enquired for a Chinese mirror. I was shown four, all of them being so tarnished that, independently of the dulness of the afternoon, I could not examine them directly for this particular property. Two of them appeared to be plane mirrors, these I at once rejected; of the remaining two, one appeared to be more convex than the other, and this I examined by cleaning the surface over one of the raised letters, and observing the image of an object as seen by reflection in the mirror; distortions similar to those which I have described were plainly visible, and I at once purchased the mirror. On subsequently trying the effect of a beam of powerful light reflected from it upon a screen, the image of one of the letters became distinctly visible.

J. PARNELL.

THE SYSTEM OF THE UNIVERSE.

(No. III.)

Hampton Park, Hereford, Feb. 18, 1866.

UNDER the theory of polar attraction, which I am now advocating, a conical motion of the earth's polar axis ought at length to be recognized, coincident in period with the recession of the nodes. Such a motion has been observed, and is known astronomically as the lesser nutation.

Under this theory, owing to the vast increase in mass of the central and centric sun, respectively, as compared with the mass of the sun—due to their several successive more concentric relations, the assumption is a just one, that at the same distance the polar attraction would act more feebly on the central than on the centric sun—yet more feebly on the sun than on the central sun; and therefore, since the tendency of all undisturbed revolving bodies would be to equatorial paths, the yet further assumption becomes equally just, that this diminished force of attraction, counteracted by the equatorial tendency, would cause the floating point of each in succession to increase its distance from the celestial pole, inversely with its diminishing mass.

Granting that this would be the case, the obliquity of the moon's orbit is at once accounted for, since it would then depend upon the attraction of the central sun, which, as the moon passes between it and the earth, draws it down towards itself, or inclines its path.

Granting an excentricity in the sun's orbit, and the variation in that obliquity or alternate oscillation of the lunar orbit across the ecliptic is accounted for, since, as the sun draws nearer to the central sun, the attraction of that body acts with an increasing power, thus increasing the angular relations of the moon's path to the equator, or causing it to oscillate in one direction: whereas, as it recedes from the central sun, the diminishing attraction of that body permits the moon's orbit to diminish its angular relations to the equator, or allows it to oscillate in the other.

Admitting the attraction of the central sun, another consequence flows from it—that the moon's perigee relations will be determined by it—that is to say, the moon's perigee will always recur on a line between the earth and the central sun. Another very important deduction flows

from this. It has been seen, in considering the motion of the earth, that it gives an apparent motion to the sun through the signs of the zodiac from W. to E. The motion of the sun, should, therefore, give a similar apparent motion to the central sun, or cause it to advance through the signs. This advance—as yet unrecognized, because the central sun has not been discovered—can, however, be seen in its consequences, for since its attraction determines the position of the moon's perigee, the lunar apsides, from always pointing to the position of the central sun, should be advancing in space. They are so advancing, carried onwards by the attraction of the central sun.

Owing to this, another important phenomenon ensues, for the direction of the advancing apsides is opposed to the direction of the receding nodes. Hence the line of the apsides crosses the line of the nodes twice in each full revolution; but because the recession of the nodes is computed from the zodiac—the advance of the apsides from each return to conjunction with the sun—this relation has not been so readily apparent, and hence each semi-revolution of the apsides has been computed as a full revolution.

This also can be experimentally demonstrated, for if the reader with a friend will now walk round the table in opposite directions, his friend keeping an inner, himself an outer circle, he will find that starting from opposition, when each faces the other with the table between them, on the completion of a quarter circuit by each, his friend is now between him and, or in conjunction with, the table; and on the completion of another quarter-circuit, that they have now changed places, but returned into opposition, with the table once more between them; and this, although each has only passed half round the table. To interpret this astronomically, the table should be treated as the sun, the friend as the retreating terrestrial system, the reader as the central sun or advancing apsides, and then it will be recognized that when they were in opposition the sun was between the invisible central sun and the earth, and the moon's perigee therefore in conjunction; but when each had made his quarter-circuit in opposite directions, the earth was between the sun and still invisible central sun, and the perigee point, therefore, in opposition. Hence, while only describing a quarter revolution on the zodiac, or wall of the room, the lunar perigee has made a semi-revolution from the sun. This ratio being continued throughout the full recession of the nodes, gives two apparent revolutions of the apsides to the single revolution of the nodes.

This division of the full zodiacal revolution of the apsides into two parts is similar in character to, and coincident with, the alternate oscillation of the lunar orbit, and this in consequence of both depending on the attraction of the central sun.

And now the first evidence of the motion of the central sun appears. The phenomena described as constituting the lunar cycle, or measure of the period of revolution of the sun, have been shown to be four in number—the recession of the lunar nodes and conical motion of the earth's polar axis, coincident in period; and the oscillation of the moon's orbit and advance of the lunar apsides, also coincident in period, but with an apparent ratio to the others of two to one. This apparent ratio, however, is not an exact one, for the full zodiacal revolution of the advancing apsides, and the complete to and fro oscillation of the lunar orbit occupy a shorter time than the full recession of the nodes. But it is necessary that this should be the case if the central sun is advancing in space from W. to E., as in that case its proper motion causes it to meet the receding node; so that the latter, in each complete recession, returns to the central sun before it regains its zodiacal point of departure. Hence the full period of the first set of phenomena must be longer than the full period of the second.

The reader who has followed me so far, however, will have been prepared for this, and will now see in the precession of the terrestrial equinoxes (or points where the orbit of the earth intersects the orbit of the sun), and greater conical motion of the earth's axis (or so-called nutation), similar phenomena to those already described—only now referrible to the motion of the central sun; the variation in the obliquity of the ecliptic and advance of the terrestrial apsides being also parallel to the similar phenomena already noticed, but with this difference—that in the former the obliquity diminishes as the central sun approaches the centric sun, owing to the equatorial relations becoming more approximate; whilst in the latter, the advance being now computed on the zodiac, the apsides only pass once completely round during the full period of precession. But they

make their full revolution in a much shorter time than the period of precession; this also for a reason—because the centric sun is itself in motion.

With regard to the motion of the centric sun, three points have to be noticed. 1. That it is accompanied by no revolution on the zodiac analogous to those of precession and recession. 2. That it causes no conical motion of the earth's axis. 3. That the difference between the periods of the advancing apsides and retrograding equinoctial points is very considerable. From these facts, it is learnt that the centric sun is crossing the zodiac instead of revolving within it, and therefore moving on a plane vertical to the mean plane of the other members of its system—a quasi-polar plane.

The signs of this motion were first recognized by Sir William Herschel. He attributed them to a proper motion of the sun, and since then they have been considered as the evidence of a solar motion through space; but their true source is the movement of the ultimate intra-zodiacal centre, here termed the centric sun, across the plane of the zodiac.

The position of the centric sun in space is learnt from the direction to which the terrestrial apsides point, since the perihelion point of the earth, from being determined by the attraction of the centric sun, will always lie between the sun and that body.

A further effect of recession has to be noticed—that, inverting the relations of progressive motion, it deducts a whole revolution of the circle of comparison from the circle of revolution of the revolving or rotating body. This deduction, like the addition that has been described, takes place in detail and, in an excentric orbit, on a progressive scale, under which the segment of the circle to be added or deducted increases progressively in length during approach to the focal body, and diminishes again as progressively during recession from it. One astronomical effect of this has been recognized in the diminution now occurring in the length of the tropical year, which thus becomes an evidence of two things—1. That the centric sun holds an excentric position in the orbit of the central sun—a fact already shown by the secular variation in the obliquity of the ecliptic. 2. That the central sun is now diminishing its distance from that body. Similar relations exist in the diurnal synodic revolution of the earth, caused by the excentricity of the sun's orbit, and are the result of the same law.

I have tested the whole of these relations geometrically, and proved their accuracy. From the data I have furnished, the reader will be able to do the same.

HENRY PRATT.

PROCEEDINGS OF FOREIGN ACADEMIES.

PARIS.

THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES. — Jan. 29. — "On the Apparent Acceleration of the Mean Movement of the Moon, due to the Action of both Sun and Moon upon the Water of the Ocean." In this paper, which is in some measure a continuation of one read in December last, M. Delaunay, in reply to M. Bertrand, shows that the influence of the sun and moon upon the waters of the globe is quite sufficient to be regarded as a perturbing force. It shows itself chiefly in a progressive diminution of the earth's movement of rotation, and in a corresponding apparent acceleration of the moon's mean motion. — "Synthetical Experiments on Meteorites." M. Daubrée records a number of experimental investigations into the constitution of meteorites; shows that these bodies are extremely analogous to certain terrestrial rocks; and states that by fusion and other metallurgical processes he has obtained artificial meteorites by synthetical means. — "A new Species of Glyptodon (*G. giganteus*)." M. Serres, who has for some time been engaged in the study of the group of extinct edentates to which this fossil belongs, describes the anatomy of the species above-named. The only remnant of the skeleton to which he had access was the pelvis, and this he described minutely. — "Spectrum of Tempel's Comet." This is described by Father Secchi, in a letter to M. Elie de Beaumont. He examined it on the 8th of January. It is composed of three bands only—one which corresponds to 2-3ths of the distance between *b* and *f* of Fraunhofer's, and is tolerably bright; its colour is green, but it differs from that of the nebula by its size. The other two rings or bands were too small and feeble to allow him to indicate their position exactly. From their characters,

M. Secchi thinks the comets should be classed (as to structure) along with the nebulae, although the refrangibility of their light differs from that of the latter bodies. — "The Superiority of Chloroform as an Anæsthetic." M. Sedillot advocates the use of chloroform, and endeavours, by reference to the experience of army surgeons, to show that this compound is more valuable than ether. "The anæsthesia," he says, "which is produced by chloroform is prompt and persistent; it adds to the resources and capabilities of surgery without diminishing its security." — "The Placentoids: New Organs of the Anther." M. Ad. Chatin has found that the cavity of the anther is often divided by a number of partitions which exactly correspond to the placentae of the ovary, and to these divisions he has given the name of *placentoids*. "If anyone makes a transverse section of the ovary of a *Solanum* and of one of its anthers, he will find in each of the chambers of the latter, as in each ovarian cavity, a fleshy projection, which approaches the centre of the chamber of the anther and of the cavity of the ovary." — "Cholera," by M. Heulhard-Darcy. In this memoir the author attempts to show that: (1.) The paludal fever appears to exclude cholera. (2.) Certain families are predisposed to be attacked by cholera. (3.) Others, on the contrary, exhibit a marked antagonism to its progress. — "The Theory of Hydraulic Wheels." This is a mathematico-physical paper by M. Pambour. — "Stanniferous Strata of Limousin and La Marche," by M. Mallard. From an examination of their formations, the author concludes that: (1.) At a distant epoch there were important mines worked in these localities. (2.) Probably they were originally worked for gold. (3.) This possibly explains the term *Aurières*, which is given to the works in the surrounding villages. — "The Sun Obscured by Meteors." This is a curious note from M. Wolf, to M. Elie de Beaumont. — "New Researches on the Poison of *Nerium Oleander*." M. Relikan, of St. Petersburg, describes, in this paper, a series of experiments which he conducted upon animals with this poison. For the most part, he confirms the conclusions long since arrived at by M. Orfila, the great French toxicologist. He thinks it might be used as a therapeutic agent where digitalis is now employed.

Feb. 5. — "The Equation of the Fifth Degree." M. Hermitz contributes a long paper on this subject. — "On Iodide of Potassium," by M. Payen. The author shows that when a cold saturated solution of this salt is exposed (with the addition of a minute quantity of acetic acid) to the air, it gradually undergoes decomposition, free iodine being liberated. If the action of the air be prevented, no decomposition occurs. But in the same solutions under the double influence of the oxygen, tending to oxydize the potassium and the acid which exerts its affinity for the potash, the iodine is set free in part. — "On the Position of the Poles in the interior of Magnetic Bars," by M. Pouillet. This is a long and important paper, but it is too diffuse for abstract; we must refer physicist readers to the pages of the *Comptes Rendus* for an extract from the memoir. — "The Structure and Functions of the Partitions of the Thecae of the Anther." M. Ad. Chatin, in continuing his inquiries on this subject, defines the partition or septum to be the layer of tissue which divides each of the chambers of the anther into two distinct thecae. It may present any of the three following conditions: (1.) It may be formed of a tissue in direct continuity with that of the "connective." (2.) It may be entirely constituted of the valve of the anther's chamber reflected upon the "connective." (3.) It may be of a mixed origin, and partake of 2 and 3. It may have three different forms of structure—thus: (a) It may be solely composed of fibre-cells. (b) It may have no fibre-cells entering into its structure. (c) It may be composed of fibrous tissue, properly so called. — "Experiments upon Oxysulphide of Calcium." M. Hofmann states that a simple mixture of two equivalents of sulphide of calcium with one equivalent of lime does not form the oxysulphide without calcination; when, however, the same mixture is heated, then the oxysulphide is formed. — "The Blisters in Steel." This is a paper by M. Caron, who shows that when steel or iron is melted in crucibles made of lime or magnesia no blisters are formed. — "The Crystallized Oxides of Antimony" is an essay by M. Terrell, who demonstrates that when either antimony or sulphide of antimony is burnt in the air, it is always the prismatic oxide that is formed. — A new galvano-caustic knife, which promises to do great things for surgery, was described by M. Séré.

REPORTS OF LEARNED SOCIETIES.

GEOLOGICAL.—Feb. 21.—Mr. Warrington W. Smyth, President, in the chair.

Messrs. William Henry Corfield, B.A., Fellow of Pembroke College, Oxford, University College Hospital, Gower Street, W.C.; Henry Lee, The Waldrons, Croydon; Henry Skiffington Poole, B.A., Cape Breton, Nova Scotia; Alexander Ramsay, jun., 45 Norland Square, Notting Hill, W.; Charles Pearce Serscold, Taplow Hill, and 24 Oxford Square; George Suche, 77 Grosvenor Street, W.; and James Maurice Wilson, M.A., Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, Rugby School, were elected fellows.

The following communications were read:—

1. "On the Tertiary Mollusca of Jamaica," by Mr. R. J. Lechmere Guppy, communicated by Henry Woodward. In 1862 Mr. Lucas Barrett deposited in the British Museum a collection of Miocene fossils from Jamaica. The author had examined these, and confirmed many of the conclusions arrived at by Mr. Carrick Moore, from his investigation of the San Domingo fossils, and by Dr. Duncan's and Prof. Rupert Jones's investigations of the corals and Foraminifera of the West Indian Miocene deposits. The author considered that the middle tertiary beds of San Domingo, Cuba, Cumana, and the Caroni series in Trinidad, together with the Miocene deposits of Jamaica, represent the upper or later part of the West Indian Miocene; while the chert formation of Antigua, the Anguilla beds, and the beds exposed at San Fernando in Trinidad, belong to the lower and older part of the same formation. Reference was then made to the distinguishing features and characteristic fossils of the beds exposed in the several localities named; and in endeavouring to correlate the beds in the different islands, the terms Upper and Lower Miocene were used merely as marking what seems to be their relative antiquity. The fauna as a whole is more nearly related to that of Bordeaux, Dax, and Malta, than to that of the American Miocene deposits.

2. "On Tertiary Echinoderms from the West Indies," by Mr. R. J. Lechmere Guppy, communicated by Mr. H. M. Jenkins. The author here brought under notice the Echinoderms belonging to the same fauna, which have been found in Anguilla and Trinidad associated with shells determined to be of Miocene age. The species sufficiently well preserved for determination are nine in number, of which two are found in the Maltese beds; three others, which are new, are closely allied to species found in the same locality. Three out of the nine are still living in the West Indian seas, but these are rare in the fossil state.

3. "On Tertiary Brachiopoda from Trinidad," by the same. Their organic remains have led to the belief that the beds belong to a lower horizon in the Miocene series than those of Jamaica, Cumana, and San Domingo; but the Brachiopoda, which consist of three species of *Terebratula*, can hardly be considered to throw much new light upon the question, as they seem to be suggestive of Cretaceous affinities.

4. "On the Affinities of *Platysomus*, and Allied Genera," by Dr. John Young. The author described in detail the anatomy of *Platysomus parvulus*, Ag., and two new genera, *Amphicentrum* and *Mesolepis*, all from the North Staffordshire coalfield; and after discussing their relations to other ganoids and to the *Teleostei*, proposed their inclusion, with the Pycnodonts and *Euryotus*, in a distinct suborder of Ganoids. *Platysomus* ranges from the Carboniferous to the Permian, one species, *P. striatus*, being common to both, as well as to England and Germany. *Euryotus* is Permian only; the true Pycnodonts exclusively Mesozoic. The remaining families are Carboniferous, while the first three disprove the generalization as to the non-existence of apodal fish before the Chalk.

5. "Note on the Scales of *Rhizodus*, Owen," by the same. On a slab in the collection of the Royal Society at Edinburgh, the characteristic *Rhizodus* teeth occur along with thick bony scales, whose exposed area is ornamented with coarse tubercles, usually irregularly disposed, while the overlapped anterior area is concentrically striated. These characters confirm the generic distinctness of *Rhizodus* from *Holoptychius*, whose smooth anterior and rugose free surfaces contrast with those described.

The following donations to the Society's Museum were exhibited:—

Tertiary Echinoderms from Trinidad and Anguilla; presented by Mr. Guppy.

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Specimens of siliceous incrustations from the Hot Springs of New Zealand; by Miss Kinder. Photographs of the Hot Springs of New Zealand; by the Rev. T. Kinder.

ANTIQUARIES.—Feb. 22.—The following gentlemen were elected fellows: Messrs. Richard Fisher, Thomas Jones, B.A., John T. Gilbert, George Adams, Thomas Smallwood Richards, Felix Slade, John Thomas Blight, and John Clayton.

Count Giovanni Gozzadini and Count Carlo Pepoli were elected honorary fellows.

ROYAL ASIATIC.—Feb. 19.—Sir E. Colebrooke, Bart., M.P., in the chair.

A paper, by Mr. E. Norris, Hon. Sec., was read, containing "Introductory Remarks to a Specimen of an Assyrian Dictionary." The author stated that, while assisting Sir H. Rawlinson in the preparation of Assyrian inscriptions for publication, he had got together a very large number of words. These he had arranged in the form of a Dictionary, intended "to serve at least as a repository in which Assyrian students may jot down their difficulties, and find a page where they may look for help by collating passages containing the words they are investigating." He proposed to commence at once the printing of the whole Dictionary, if the specimen given should be thought satisfactory. After adverting to the difficulties of the Assyrian syllabary, encumbered as it is by monograms, determinatives, polyphones, unpronounceable proto-Babylonian symbols, and varying orthography, the author said he had arranged the words according to the order of the Hebrew alphabet, taking no notice of inherent unwritten vowels, or of the complementary vowels following them, which serve at most only to lengthen the syllable. *Accad* or proto-Babylonian words would be generally rendered as if they were Assyrian, and left to take their chance in that form; with the exception of a few of frequent occurrence, whose Assyrian equivalents are well known from vocabularies and variant readings. In conclusion, he mentioned that throughout the work a normal character would be used, as near to the older Assyrian forms as the disposable typographical arrangements would admit.

The reading of the paper being concluded, Sir H. Rawlinson bore testimony to the great difficulties with which Assyrian lexicography was beset on all sides, passing a high encomium on Mr. Norris for his indefatigable zeal in grappling with them; and then gave an account of the *Accad* element, which largely enters into the composition of the Assyrian records, and vastly increases the difficulties of deciphering them.

Mr. E. Maltby presented to the society a series of large photographic views in Tanjore and Trivady, and the photograph (20 feet in length) of an inscription around the basement of the Bimanam of the Great Pagoda at Tanjore. The inscription dates from the beginning of the fourteenth century A.D., is in the old Tamil language, and in a character bearing great similarity to the Grantha, Malayalam, and, in some letters, to the old alphabet of the Gujerati Plates.

THE QUEKETT MICROSCOPICAL CLUB.—Feb. 23.—Mr. M. C. Cooke, V.-P., in the chair.

Mr. D. E. Goddard read a paper on "Manipulation with Canada Balsam." An animated conversation ensued.

Ten members were elected.

ENGINEERS.—Feb. 27.—Mr. John Fowler, President, in the chair.

The paper read was on "The Hydraulic Lift Graving Dock," by Mr. Edwin Clark.

MEETINGS FOR NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, 2.—General Monthly Meeting.

ASIATIC, 3.

ENTOMOLOGICAL, 7.

MEDICAL, 7.—Annual Election.

TUESDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, 3.—"On the Non-Metallic Elements," Professor Frankland, F.R.S.

ANGLO-BIBLICAL, 7.—"On the Extent of the Knowledge of the Ancient MSS. of the Holy Scriptures," Mr. Herman Heinfetter.

ENGINEERS, 8.—Discussion on "The Hydraulic Lift Graving Dock."

ANTHROPOLOGICAL, 8.—"On the Orthographic Delineation of the Skull," Mr. A. Higgins; "On a New Goniometer, for the Measurement of the Facial Triangle," Dr. Paul Broca; "On Certain Supposed Simious Skulls, Ancient and Modern, with reference to a Skull from Louth, in Ireland," Mr. C. Carter Blake; "On the Iconography of the Skull," Mr. W. H. Wesley.

WEDNESDAY.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF LITERATURE, 4.30.

SOCIETY OF ARTS, 8.—"On the Late Anglo-French Exhibition, with a Proposal for the Formation of an Anglo-French Association," Mr. Robert Conigsby.

GEOLOGICAL, 8.—"On the Carboniferous Slate of the North of Devon and South of Ireland," Mr. J. Beete Jukes, F.R.S.

PHARMACEUTICAL, 8.

BRITISH ARCHEOLOGICAL, 8.30.

THURSDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, 3.—"On the Non-Metallic Elements," Professor Frankland, F.R.S.

MEDICAL, 5.—Anniversary Oration.

ROYAL, 8.30.

ANTIQUARIES, 8.30.—"The Mosque of Omar and the Holy Sepulchre," Mr. Lewin.

FRIDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, 8.—"On the Transformation of Insects," Sir John Lubbock.

ASTRONOMICAL, 8.

SATURDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, 3.—"On Structural and Systematic Botany," Rev. G. Henslow.

ROYAL BOTANIC, 3.45.

ART.

ART EDUCATION.

BY art education we mean the education of artists, and not popular art education, which has about as much to do with art as pothooks have with poetry. It has, no doubt, been felt that art could never flourish without a general appreciation of it among the people; and it has been thought that teaching the rudiments of drawing would diffuse a general taste, on much the same principle that teaching a man to plane a bit of wood would make him a good judge of the beauty of a cabinet. The causes of modern vulgarity and deadness to the perception of beauty lie far deeper, and the attempts at popular education are little able to remove them, though they are hopeful indications of the general interest which is taken in elevating our intellectual position as a nation; they at least show that we are sensible of our degradation, which is the first step towards an improvement.

But, though the great mass of the people may be impervious to the influence of art, it is a mistake to suppose that there is not a large class able fully to appreciate all that our artists can ever produce; they need not fear that their performance must be brought to a close for want of an audience. At this very time, those who are imbued with a sense of the beautiful and a discriminative taste already far exceed in number the admirers of art in the palmiest days of the Italian Renaissance. Men of education are no mean judges of a good picture, although, by a certain clique, their taste has been denied, for the simple reason that they refuse to recognize beauty in the crude distraction and laborious niggling of a petty and mean imitation of nature. It is true that the interminable disquisitions about art have done not a little to bewilder those who are weak enough to be entangled by them; while the patronage of art has been largely taken up by a class who admit without question canons of taste which are put forward with an assumption of intellectual superiority, and the fallacies of which they are unable or unwilling to detect; and men of no refinement who have grown suddenly rich obtain not only pictures which are admirably suited to their taste, but a sort of fictitious intellectual position, by the purchase of works which they are confidently assured possess, in a high degree, those qualities of art which alone are desirable, combined with an originality of treatment that is characteristic of the age; and there is no doubt that to many men an illusive imitation of ordinary events is infinitely more intelligible and pleasing than a grand conception carried out with the power of a great artist; and the abuse of the old masters, and the attempts to regard an admiration of them as old-fashioned and obsolete, spring as much from the interest as the ignorance of a certain class of our painters, for it is far easier to decry than to rival their consummate excellence. If our artists had been properly taught to paint, we should have been spared the interminable attempts to prove the value of artistic ignorance; and one of the greatest blessings of an efficient education will be, that we shall not only have more good work, but less talk.

There are three ways of teaching art: first the Academic system; secondly, what may be called the apprentice system; and lastly, that which is very general at the present day in France, a combination of the two. As a type of Academic teaching, we may take that of the Royal Academy, though in some of its details it is peculiar. Students are in the first instance admitted to the Royal Academy as probationers, by sending in an accurate and highly-finished drawing from some antique statue, so that they must already have acquired some facility of execution and shown some aptitude for art. Their studies are at first conducted under the superintendence of the Keeper, whose duty it is to teach drawing from the antique. When the student has mastered some of the difficulties of the human form, and improved his taste by the study of classical art, he is promoted to the painting school, where he copies pictures and paints from the draped model. The next and last stage, is drawing and painting from the nude model. This is the programme of instruction at the Royal Academy, and is pretty much what it is elsewhere, except that in the place of a regular permanent master for each branch of education, every Academician in his turn becomes a visitor; and it is his duty to superintend the studies in the painting and life schools. The students have thus every month a different master, and in this way they certainly gain an insight into every conceivable method of painting; but it may well be doubted if they are likely to learn to paint either quickly or well. Painting is one of the most difficult things in the world, and the student wastes a great deal of his time and energy in making experiments. He is distracted by the variety of opinions, and still more by the multiplicity of processes; if he fails in one—and fail at first he must—he is apt to change to some other method, which he fancies, till he has tried it, must be easier, instead of grappling with and steadily surmounting the difficulties which are necessarily inseparable from an art requiring the most subtle delicacy and most perfect control both of the eye and the hand.

The first objection we have to urge against all modern systems of art instruction is, that they are too slow. "Art is long, life is short," is a proverb often quoted, but never taken to heart; if we all lived to the age of Methuselah, there might be some excuse for wasting laborious years in stippling and hatching. Students take four, five, or even six months over a drawing of a statue. If they really mastered and understood all its detail, this might be no very great waste of time. But the fact is, that modern drawing is almost entirely imitative. It is an attempt mechanically to copy its appearance, rather than to comprehend and express form; and, in nine cases out of ten, the student might just as well copy a map of London as a statue. He measures, plumbs, alters, and erases, till at last, having got a tolerably correct outline, he sets to work at the more serious business of shading; he sharpens his chalk to a needle point, hatches, fills in and breads out spots, till he at last produces that granulated appearance which seems to be the object of every student's ambition. If he executes a square inch of this sort of shadow, he thinks he has done a good day's work, and at last he manufactures a drawing, which is certainly an astounding example of neatness and patience. But, after all, what has he learnt? Does he really know anything of the figure on which he has spent so much time and trouble? Could he draw either an arm or a leg, we will not say in any position, but in the one he has just slaved at for months? In the great majority of instances, No. He has simply produced a drawing; he has not learned to draw. How far different were the drawings made by the old masters. There was none of this waste of time then; they worked quickly and to acquire knowledge; they recorded forms and facts accurately enough to fix them in their memory, and to be of use to them in their art. In the time one of our students would take to

produce one of these prodigies of stippling and patience, they would have filled whole note-books with sketches of all the statues in the place. Our art is imitative—theirs was the expression of knowledge. They digested what they noticed, and reproduced it from their hearts; we laboriously copy what we see. In this lies the source of all our deficiencies, and the whole tenour of modern art, and art criticism and education, lies in one direction. Till this is changed, we have no hope of another Renaissance. We have no space now to enumerate all the causes which have led to what we believe is altogether a false view of art. It is the interest, as well as the inclination, of too many of our artists, who have devoted themselves to what they conceive to be a true, original, and modern conception of nature and of art, to do what they can to oppose a return to the old paths; but, notwithstanding this, there is a very general feeling that we are not in the right track. The laborious elaboration and microscopic minuteness of modern art has, as might reasonably have been anticipated, entirely failed to produce artistic power. Instead of learning to express the ideal conceptions of man, we have tried to rival photography in the illusive imitation of the petty details of nature, and men of the age at which Raphael died find that they have slaved away in vain, and know nothing whatever of art. They can perhaps copy a stem of a tree, but of composition, of method of painting, and the general business of their craft, which the Italian painters seem to have acquired in their teens, they are utterly ignorant. They admit, and even admire, the beauty and truth of a Venetian picture, but have no notion of the method by which its results were achieved, and take little pains to acquire it; and if they copy an old picture, in place of masterly execution, and limpid tone and transparency, we have too often a work which shows every sign of ignorance. It is opaque and heavy, foxy and feeble. The science of painting is defunct. We have no tradition. Every artist begins at the beginning of art; and if he is lucky enough to hit upon a successful method, he is chary of divulging what has cost him much thought and patience to work out. No one ever told him anything, why should he tell others? And thus some artists waste years in tentative efforts, without any assistance, while others lapse into an easy acquiescence in a muddy and mediocre style, and the progress of art is halting and slow, if not retrograde. The remedy for all this is the public teaching of a good system of painting. Let our students be taught by one master, and be kept strictly to one method, till they have thoroughly mastered it; and if anyone can be found competent to teach it, let the method be that of the Venetians, who were perfect masters of their craft. We have spoken first of painting, because it is by far the most difficult process in art, and more time is wasted for want of instruction in it than in any other; but it must not be forgotten that success in painting implies a perception of the form as well as of the tints of nature, and nothing so readily conveys a knowledge of form, and fixes it on the memory, as modelling. Every artist should model. When he really knows form, he will find no difficulty in expressing it, either in drawing or painting.

It will thus be seen that the changes which we would suggest in the system of the Royal Academy, are, first, to give up the laborious stippling in the antique school. Instead of attempting an imitation of the appearances of nature, let the students thoroughly comprehend and express the form. The master should demonstrate on a board the general forms of the human figure, and of the limbs in repose and motion, accompanying his lecture with anatomical sketches. The student should be required to make illustrative drawings, and his general knowledge should be tested by periodical examinations. The system of visitors in the life and painting schools should be entirely abandoned, and efficient

masters provided for every stage of instruction. And, lastly, every student, whether of painting, sculpture, or architecture, should be taught modelling.

The Academic system, if carried out in a large and comprehensive manner, has, doubtless, many advantages. Where lectures on all the branches of art are regularly given, and their intimate union and mutual dependence are felt and recognized, the student acquires a power and scope which the solitary study of one section alone can never give; he has more and better masters, and the material of instruction is more complete than any private studio can afford. But, judged by its results, the apprentice method is of the two the most efficient. A young man is taken as an apprentice by an artist, who trains him up, and teaches him his whole craft practically. At first he makes use of him in preparing his colours. As he advances in knowledge, he assists his master in more important processes; till at last, having acquired complete mastery of the whole art, he sets up for himself. The great advantage of this system is, that the pupil sees the work actually carried on; and responsible work is always more interesting and instructive than any that is done for the mere purpose of practice or teaching. Watching the work of a good workman, and then trying to do it as well oneself, is the very best way to learn; and this is the secret of the rapid progress and the great power of the men of the Renaissance period; and through the want of this system the science of art has died out. It was a mystery and a craft, which might be communicated to an apprentice or a friend, but was too precious to be thrown promiscuously among the audience of an Academic theatre. The spirit of art is given by the imposition of hands; and in our own day the success of Haydon's pupils is an instance of the effect of personal contact with a vigorous and enthusiastic mind.

It is hardly necessary to do more than mention the mode of instruction in the French *ateliers*. An artist of eminence sets up a sort of academy; he superintends the studies of his pupils; and when they become more proficient, they help him in his work. This system is inferior to the last only because the number of the students is usually so large that the same personal supervision is impossible; but it is superior to the ordinary Academic system in the advantage that they derive from seeing, and sometimes assisting in, their master's work—an advantage which, it has been suggested, might easily be grafted onto our Academy, by requiring those masters who undertook national works to take a few of the most promising students as pupils and assistants, large works would thus be more rapidly executed, while the rising generation would have some chance of being efficiently taught the mysteries of their profession. A premium might be paid for each pupil, partly by the pupil himself, and partly by grants from the Royal Academy or the Government. These appointments would exactly correspond to the scholarships at our Universities, and should be the reward of Academic progress.

ART NOTES.

It is stated that Crewe Hall, which sustained such severe damage by fire a short time back, is to be restored by Mr. Barry.

THE current number of "Photographic Portraits" completes the fourth volume of this undertaking. The portrait of Mr. Anthony Froude, the historian, will be welcome to a large number of persons. We do not remember to have seen his likeness anywhere before. We learn from the brief memoir which accompanies that of Mr. O'Neil, that that gentleman is at present engaged upon a picture for the May Exhibition, representing "The Last Moments of Raffaele."

MANY of our readers will probably recollect Gallait's touching picture of "The Last Honours paid to Counts Egmont and Horn," in the Exhibition of 1862. The *Indépendance Belge* states that the same artist has just completed a painting representing another episode in the

lives of those unfortunate noblemen. It may be remembered that after their form of trial before the Tribunal of Blood, as it has been called, they were removed under a strong escort to Brussels. The sentence arrived there on the night of the 4th of June, 1568, after the unhappy prisoners had retired to rest. M. Gallait has chosen the moment when the Bishop of Ypres, the messenger sent by the Duke of Alva, makes known to them the result of their trial. The picture, which is spoken of as a most important work, has been purchased by the King of the Belgians.

MESSRS. CHRISTIE, MANSON, and WOODS will sell, on Wednesday next, the collection of pictures and articles of the late Mr. Thos. G. Mackinlay, F.S.A.

THE Hildebrandt pictures—China, Japan, Manilla—painted from nature by Edouard Hildebrandt, which were exhibited in the *Gallerie des Beaux Arts*, at Paris, are now on view at the Institute of Painters in Water Colours, in Pall Mall.—The Winter Exhibition of Cabinet Pictures of the English School, at the British Gallery, in Pall Mall, is open from morning till evening, when it is lighted with gas.—This is the last day of the exhibition of Mr. H. C. Selon's two pictures, "Christ entering Jerusalem," and "Jerusalem from the Mount of Olives," at the M'Lean Gallery, in the Haymarket.—The Exhibition of Water Colour Drawings, at the German Gallery, in New Bondstreet, includes Walton's "Peaks and Valleys of the Alps."—The Winter Exhibition of the studies and sketches by members of the Society of Painters in Water Colours, at Pall Mall East, will close on the 17th instant.

ART CORRESPONDENCE.

GLASS PAINTING.

To the Editor of THE READER.

Sir,—I hasten to express my regret that I should have so entirely misunderstood the reviewer of Mr. Winston's memoirs as to the Munich window at South Kensington. I regret much to hear that the better method of execution which we succeeded in enforcing has been so soon abandoned. I now also understand which artist is meant, and I quite sympathize with your reviewer's criticism. But that artist's weakness and his faults are not those of the entire school; a window by him must be criticized as his work, just as a weak picture in the Royal Academy must be judged of in relation to its producer, and not as an illustration of the whole school. I have observed that the three artists employed as glass painters in the Munich establishment vary in ability, but all render with remarkable fidelity the merits or defects of the artists who design and prepare the cartoons. If the artist is weak, so is the window; if he is energetic, the glass painter who seemed paralyzed by the weak artist becomes energetic in executing the more masterly design. Thus our windows vary greatly; some are great works of art, others feeble enough.

Scotland is in a totally different position from England in relation to glass painting. I think that I may fairly state that, except amongst a very small number, we have none of the associations which Englishmen, and English Churchmen especially, connect with this art; on the contrary, those associations are positively distasteful to us. None of those amongst us who think at all would dream of representing the heroes of Scripture as you have been content to represent them in England—by distorted, lifeless effigies; the very Saviour caricatured. To serious and thinking Scotch people this is odious, and if painted glass cannot get beyond it, they would rather do without it. So much do I differ from your reviewer on the question of drawing, that I venture to say nothing can satisfy us but design of monumental character, and windows designed by monumental painters. I do not believe in the capacity of easel painters to design for glass, unless by some fortunate chance they have acquired a great manner. Old glass painting, both at Antwerp and Brussels, shows those who study how the art fell in the hands of naturalistic and genre painters. Such painters merely design big genre pictures. You have plenty of this in your mural pictures in the Houses of Parliament, Westminster. Desiring, then, such design, we require glass painters able to paint it. In all the glass paintings which I have examined, of a really great period of the art, I have found a power of handling so great, that I have felt the same emotions in the presence of these works that is experienced in pre-

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sence of great works of art, whether in fresco or in oil painting. The evidence of trained hands, a good manner, and, with these, native power, are observable in really fine old glass. The German glass painters have the trained hands; they draw well, paint well, but alas! here they stop. How much of this there is in all modern art! but where is the power of the men of old? Now, in our own glass painters' work I find no evidence of school, and certainly none of power, which is useless without science and knowledge. I find ill-drawn eyes, nostrils, mouths; worse feet and hands—either mere pattern-drawing, or, if there is an attempt at style, it is a poor convention beyond which the practitioner cannot go; and I find every hand and arm, every leg and foot, out of the self-same mould, till I wonder whether cut-out patterns are kept. Then, in that test of great ideas in art, the treatment of drapery, how defective our school is! Next to drawing the naked we must regard the power of drawing drapery in a great manner as the most important of the great artist's accomplishments. Next I place that system of light and shade appropriate to monumental art, and to all painting connected with architecture, which makes a picture distinct in all its parts, and visible at great distances. This the genre painter has no idea of, because it is unnecessary, and, perhaps, would be disagreeable, in his art. In our Munich windows this distinctness is thoroughly understood, as it is in the great glass paintings of the Cinque Cento. In all our English windows it is entirely missed. It may not be sought after, perhaps, but at sixty feet even they become indistinguishable masses of confused colour—it is genre art in glass painting. I think that we shall persevere in the course which we have selected; at least, I hope so. If with good design we can get more power of colour, so much the better; but those amongst us who are in earnest will continue to insist in the first place upon greatness of design. We must take what we can get in the nineteenth century, and bear with the defects of its art. When the monumental painters of England have formed a great school of glass painting, there can then be no question whom to employ; till then we must continue to go elsewhere in search of what we want.—Your very obedient servant,

C. HEATH WILSON.

1, Burnbank Gardens, Glasgow,
February 20, 1866.

MUSIC.

CHAMBER MUSIC—THE MONDAY CONCERTS.

TO have "chamber music" in perfection, one must make sure of two things—first, the players must be first-rate; secondly, they must have learnt to "go together." Perhaps, of the two desiderata, the second is the most important. It has been amply proved that four "good" players, in the ordinary sense of the word, whom constant united practice has made thoroughly familiar with each other's play, till they have acquired a sort of instinct of unanimity, will produce more effect, will give a truer, as well as a more beautiful, rendering of great works, than a set of phenomenally-accomplished executants who have not had this training. In the analogous case of vocal part-music the rule is a matter of familiar experience. We recollect hearing, some years back, a straightforward English glee, "Blow, gentle Gales," sung at a concert by five of the best vocalists of the time—Madame Novello, Madame Dolby, Mr. Reeves, Herr Formes, and a fifth, whose name we cannot recall; and a more limping, spiritless performance we never listened to. A good example of the contrary of this occurred the other day at the Crystal Palace, when a party of four singers who had been on a country *tournee*, of whom only one was a vocalist of the first rank, sang the great quartett from "Rigoletto" with a degree of spirit, finish, and effect very seldom reached upon the opera stage. It is a pity that most of the chamber-music we hear in England is arranged with so little regard to this point. In France and Germany the system of small corps of artists practising and performing constantly together is common. Every one has heard of the "Schuppanzigi

Quartett," the "Alard Quartett," the "Jansa Quartett," and so on; and Paris, Vienna, and Dresden are at the present moment full of such little associations. Why should not some of our English professors, natives or settlers, try the same plan? Look, for instance, at M. Costa's band. What a splendid regiment of artists that is! Out of it might be formed little squads of players, who, if they would make up their minds to the requisite amount of drill, might rival the very best of "scratch" parties. How seldom do one hear, even when listening to the best players, a real unanimity of play, and how delightful it is when one does hear it. Often, of course, the composer intends the parts to be individualized; but when they are meant to be blended in unity of movement, how seldom is the sense of unity conveyed to the ear or the mind of the listener. He may think, as he looks at the players, that the parts are going together; but let him shut his eyes, and try to fancy he hears but one instrument, and how soon the delusion is dispelled. Before three bars are played, some little incongruity of stroke, or variation of emphasis, will remind him that there is more than one will at work in the music. Long practice certainly, perhaps months and years of it, must be gone through before such a result as we are thinking of can be achieved. The attempt would demand the exercise of faith as well as patience; but the work would bring its reward. By degrees the Sainton Quartett, or the Carrodus Quartett, or whatever else it might be called, would win the favour of the observant few, and presently be in request with the multitude. The ease with which concerts might be got up under this system would spread the love of the higher kind of music, and thus contribute to secure a fair remuneration to its professors.*

We have been led into this little speculation by thinking how very nearly the Monday Popular Concerts, with their present organization, do satisfy the two conditions first spoken of. The director has now for years past been gathering on that platform some of the best talent in the world, and has kept so steadily to his principle, that the party has acquired something of the consistency of a united body. It now presents, perhaps, about as good a combination of the *two* requisites—individual excellence and habituation to each other's play—as a reasonable person can well expect to meet with. As Herr Joachim is on the violin, so is Signor Piatti on the violoncello, and these two *sommités* have played so much together that they could not be otherwise than of one mind. Herr Ries has been an admirable second from the very beginning of the concerts, and till the other day we might say the same of the tenor; but the death-angel, who does not care about disturbing the harmony of a quartett, has taken away the excellent artist who filled that place so long and so well.† Herr Strauss, whose powers as a leader have been so well tested, has for the past few nights been taking the vacant subordinate post. The value of his help was felt strongly in this last concert, when he played in the middle part in a delightful trio (Divertimento in E flat), which Mr. Chappell has taken off the Mozartian shelf; Messrs. Joachim and Piatti being his playmates. Such a combination of magnificent tone and finished style as this made has seldom, if ever, been heard among us, and probably the traditions of the art could scarcely furnish a record of anything finer. Herr Joachim's tone has a marvellous potency in it, a mixture of strength and sweetness which subdues the listener before half-a-dozen bars are over. Not less supremely lovely are the sounds which issue from Signor Piatti's violoncello,

* Attempts at something of the kind suggested have been made, from time to time, by small knots of London musicians; but they have been very spasmodic, and generally narrow in their aims.

† Mr. Henry Webb had risen to the highest place among English professors of the Viola; his face was one of those best known to London amateurs at the Musical Union, the Monday Concerts, and in the opera band. The sudden death of so thorough an artist, in the prime of life, is a loss which will be felt beyond the circle of his personal friends.

and really the only objection to a quartett boasting of such members as these is that it is *too good*. An audience which has the luxury of hearing such playing runs some risk of becoming *blasé* to the indulgence. It is apt to get into a way of treating the result of a wholly exceptional combination as if it were the ordinary thing to be expected of four fiddlers. But this is a very endurable evil, and, to do the Monday Popular audience justice, use does not seem to have yet blunted their appreciation of their privileges.

Of the music produced during the past month we have no space to speak in detail. It is pleasant to see that, though the 200th concert of the series will be reached on Monday next, there is yet no difficulty in finding works of capital interest by the great masters to be "performed for the first time," so inexhaustible in quantity as well as quality are the treasures they have left us. Never, it seems to us, has the indefatigable director been more active in this way than this season. Something of fresh interest has appeared in almost every programme; in those of the Saturday mornings (the delight of suburban *melomanes*) as well as of the Monday evenings. Madame Goddard's first appearance was in a superb sonata of Dussek (the "Adieu to Clementi," in E flat), a piece the choice of which showed the "pluck" of the player, for it must require no small courage to challenge an audience with an unknown work which you know *must* be coolly received, when you have at your fingers' ends a score of familiar masterpieces, any one of which would rouse a *furor* of applause. On another night this lady played two fugues by Handel and Mendelssohn, the impression made by the last of which (Mendelssohn in E minor, Op. 31) will be not easily forgotten by those who heard it. More consummate mastery of the instrument more nobly applied it has never been our fortune to hear. This performance, and Herr Joachim's *rentrée* in Mozart's immortal G minor quintett, made the concert of the 12th of February a memorable one. On Monday last, besides the trio for strings only already mentioned, there was the marvellous Sonata of Beethoven in E minor, Op. 106, one of the group of later works which Madame Goddard will always have the credit of having first made familiar and intelligible to English ears, and the greatest of Mendelssohn's pianoforte trios (the C minor), the concert finishing with a delightful quartett of Haydn, which, though a favourite of amateurs, had not before been in Mr. Chappell's programmes. In this Herr Joachim took too the tenor part, Herr Strauss leading; an interchange of artistic courtesies which pleased everybody.

The singing of Miss Edith Wynne at the last concert was so good, that we never less regretted the intrusion of vocal music into the programme. Every time that this young lady appears she seems to have made progress in the interval. Her singing, which was always sweet and charming, is now gathering that breadth and strength and finish which are the best evidence of a right method. If she follows her present course, Miss Wynne may soon claim a place among the best English singers.

MUSICAL NOTE.

A SOCIETY where ladies and gentlemen have an opportunity of practising both part and solo singing in a quiet, homely way, and become familiar with new or little-known music, has recently been established at the Beethoven Rooms, Harley Street, under the title of "Schubert Society." The society meets on Thursday nights, and is under the direction of Mr. Edward Schuberbert, a representative of the well-known musical family, and himself a violoncello player of considerable ability.

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